



GRASSINEAU'S

MUSICAL DICTIONARY:

WITT

An APPENDIX from the Dictionnaire DE Musique of M. Rousseau.



W E whose Names are hereunto subscribed, do approve the following Sheets, containing a Musical Dictionary, and recommend them as very useful, and worthy the perusal of all Lovers of Music.

J. C. Pepusch, M. Greene, J. E. Galliard.

MUSICAL DICTIONARY:

CONTAINING

A full Explanation of all the Terms made use of in the HISTORICAL, THEORETICAL, and PRACTICAL Parts of M U S I C:

ALSO

Explanations of the Doctrines of ANCIENT MUSIC,

AND

Mathematical and Philosophical Inquiries into the Nature of SOUND with regard to INTERVALS, CONCORDS, and DISCORDS:

TOGETHER WITH

A full Description of all the various Kinds of

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

(not contained in any other Dictionary).

The whole carefully abstracted from the best Authors in the Greek, Latin, Italian, French, and English Languages,

By JAMES GRASSINEAU, Gent.

A NEW EDITION,

TO WHICH IS ADDED

An Appendix, selected from the Dictionnaire de Musique of M. Rousseau:

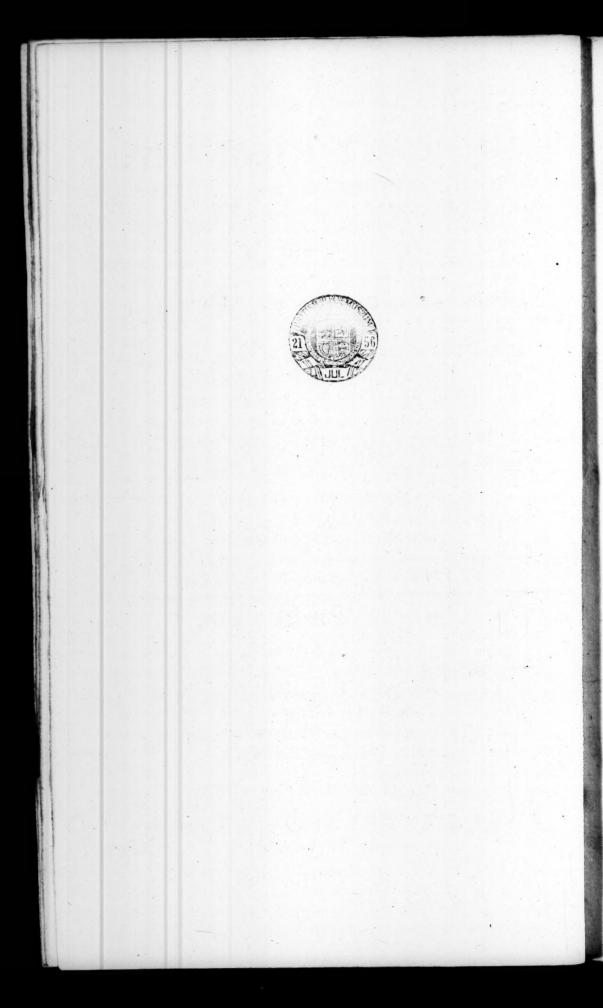
CONTAINING

All the New Improvements in Music since the first Publication of this DICTIONARY.

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M DCC LXIX.





TO HER

ROYAL HIGHNESS

THE

PRINCESS AMELIA.

MADAM,



APPY am I in being allowed the Honour of prefixing your high Name to the following

Pages; and still happier should I be, if the Performance was, in any Degree, worthy the Protection of so great a Personage: mean

as it is, I hope it might yield some little Amusement at a vacant hour; and what your Royal Highness cannot, in Judgment, approve, I doubt not, but

you will, in Candor, excuse.

To the natural Advantages of a fine Person and excellent Understanding, your Royal Highness has not only added a superior Knowledge of Music, but every other Accomplishment of Education, that might become your high Rank or Birth: but in nothing are you more illustrious than in your own great and good Qualities, which appear in too conspicuous a Light, to be unobferved by any who have the Honour of knowing the Court of Great Britain. Such a Dignity of Behaviour, joined with fo much much Sweetness of Temper, at once commands the Respect, and engages the Affection, of every one that approaches you. But I must take care I do not lessen what I should in vain attempt to describe; Your Royal Highness's Character being a Theme that deserves, and might well employ the most eloquent Pen.

I shall always have the Ambi-

bition of being,

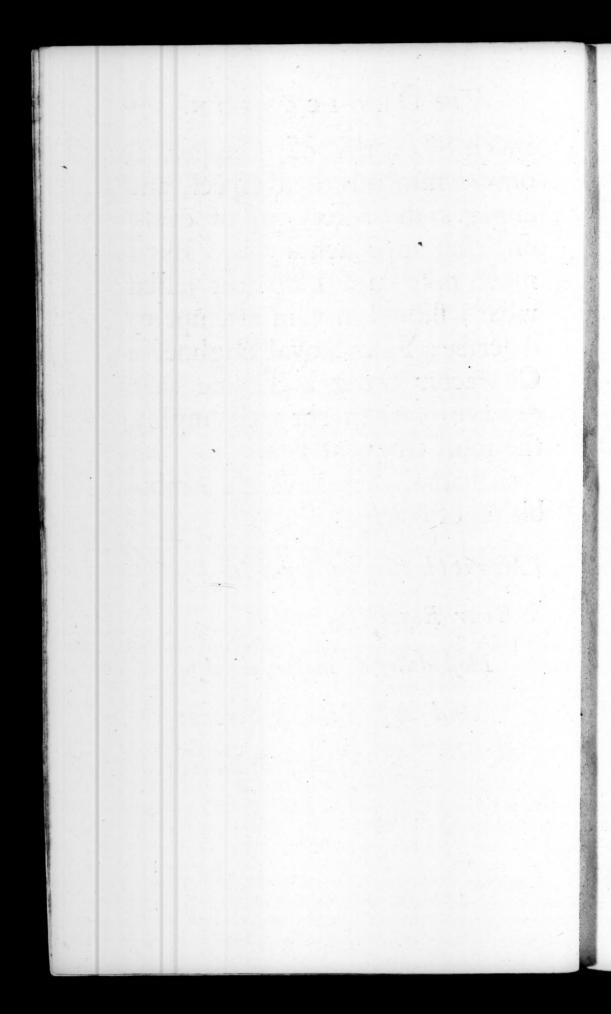
(May it please your Royal Highness)

Your Royal Highness's

Most dutiful, most oblig'd,

And most humble Servant,

James Grassineau.





THE

PREFACE.

I natural inclination to music prompted me, in the very dawn of youth, to apply myself to that study. I soon observed and bewailed the scarcity of books on that noble science in my native tongue. The necessity of every student's being acquainted with the

rudiments, and familiar with the terms of the art he professes, is a truth I was immediately convined of; but
yet I could find no treatise extant I could fly to for help.
Upon this I turn'd my thoughts upon drawing up the following sheets for my own private use, which I have now
publish'd on a presumption, that they might be of some little
service to others.

The reader will here find the terms of this extensive art, and their definitions drawn into as narrow a compass as conveniently might be; whereby he will be sav'd the trouble of reading a great number of volumes, which he must otherwise have unavoidably done, before he could arrive at a tolerable knowledge either of the theory or practice of music.

I prefer'd the method this work is drawn up in, before all others, as it is a fashionable way of writing: For 'tis observable, that there are at present distinuaries of almost every art; why then not of music? And indeed I thought the celebrated French author, Mr Brossard, worthy imitation in this, as well as other respects: for I must ingenuously acknowledge myself to be much indebted to that learned gentleman for many materials of this work.

The following attempt will, I conceive, render some of the passages of the ancients intelligible to every English reader; whereby many may inform themselves of things which would otherwise have been out of their reach, since every one has not the leisure or opportunity of learning, in a competent degree, the language of the ancients; and the service might be the greater, as 'tis impossible to obtain a true knowledge of music (or perhaps any other art) without their assistance. This is a hint that I wish one day to see persued by a far abler pen, by whose superior skill, we may hope to recover, what we have all imaginable reason to believe is now lost; I mean the beauties as well as niceties of the ancient Greek music, by means of which such miraculous effects (if we will credit history) have been produc'd.

Whosever will allow himself time to look into the works of Aristoxenus and other ancient Greek writers (which I have been oblig'd occasionally to consult in the progress of this work) will soon be convin'd, that the ancient music of Greece excell'd the modern of Italy: And indeed 'tis as plain that we are ignorant of the method in use among them, as 'tis that our's is very different from, and salls far short of it.

In the lark times of ignorance and superstition, music, no doubt, suffer'd in the common wreck, as well as other tranches of literature: This we may reasonably collect from Athenaus, who cites a fourth book of Aristoxenus, whereas we have but three impersect ones of that author remaining to our days. Hence we may conclude, that other treatises had probably the same, or a worse sate, viz. that

of being totally destroyed; which, had they escaped, might have been of singular use to us now, in clearing up many insuperable difficulties and perplexities.

About the eleventh century, one Guido Aretine began to revive this art; 'tis from him we derive what is term'd the modern music; but his manner is widely different from that of the Grecians. He brought into one system two of the ancient genera, viz. the diatonic and chromatic; but these not without some alteration, and omitted the enharmonic, by reason of the minuteness of it's intervals. In the year 1330, or 1333, Jean de Muris, a Doctor at Paris, invented notes of different lengths, which 'till then were all of equal value as to time. The next alteration was the addition of a seventh syllable si, to the six, ut re mi fa sol la, which Guido used. The French Musicians will have it to be of great service, but 'tis rejected by most other nations; yet as in this work I have follow'd a French author in many points, in the use of this syllable I have likewise often imitated him. True it is, we have considerably improved on the ingenious Guido's foundation, as is apparent from the many excellent treatifes extant, which redound greatly to the honour of the moderns.

I have judg'd it necessary to introduce many Italian terms and phrases in the following book, because, as many of our composers and performers are of that country, we often meet with them in musical compositions, which however, for the service of my English reader, are explain'd in the most obvious manner.

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bat of I can't here but acknowledge, with the highest sense of gratitude, the obligations I have to one in whom our nation may boast the possession of the greatest master, and the science it's greatest ornament; one, whose candor and benevolence to me, have been equal to his judgment and penetration in the art he professes. Led by no considerations of friendship, or prospect of interest, but mov'd by a pure generous regard for the improvement of music, and entertainment of every sincere lover of it, he gave me his ad-

vice,

vice, and in many instances, his kind assistance, in the most engaging manner, thro' the whole course of this work. Indeed 'tis chiefly owing to this great master's persuasion and favourable approbation, that it now appears in this tublick manner.

I will offer no farther excuse for it; if it be of use, it wants none; if not, the reader will judge of it, and none, I fear, will be admitted.

A

Musical Dictionary.

ACC

Majuscule in thorough basses, marks the Alto or Haut Contre. See HAUT CONTRE, and CONTRA TENOR.

A Battuta. See BATTUTA.

A Bene placito, at pleasure.

ACCENT, a certain modulation, or warbling of the founds, to express the passions, either naturally by the voice, or artificially by instruments.

Every bar or measure is divided into accented and unaccented parts; the accented are the principal; being those chiefly intended to move and affect: 'tis on these the spirit of music

depends. See BAR and Music.

The beginning and the middle, or the beginning of the first half of the bar, and the beginning of the latter half thereof in common time, and the beginning, or first of three notes in triple time, are always the accented parts of the measure. See TIME and TRIPLE.

Again, in common time the first and third crotchet of the bar, are on the accented part of the measure. In triple time, where notes go always by three and three, that which is in the middle of every three is unaccented, the first and last accented; but the accent of the first is so much stronger, that in many cases the last is accounted as if it had no accent. See Composition.

This accented and unaccented part of a measure answers to what the *Italians* call tempo buono and cativo. See Buono and CATIVO.

The harmony is always to be full, and void of discords in the accented parts of the measure: by discords we mean discords in conjoint degrees, which are commonly called passing notes; for discords by proper preparation and resolution are absolutely necessary, and must be used therein. See HAR-MONY. In the unaccented parts this is not so necessary, dis-

cords

cords by conjoint degrees there passing without any great offence to the ear. See DISCORD and COUNTERPOINT.

ACCENTOR, one of three fingers in parts, or the person that fings the predominant part in a Trio. See TRIO.

ACCORD, is more usually called Concord, which see. The word is French, formed, according to some, from the Latin, ad, and cor; but others, with more probability, derive it from the French chorde, a string or chord, on account of the agreeable union of the sounds of two strings struck at at the same time. See Chord.

Whence also some of the consonances in music come to be called Tetrachords, Hexachords, &c. which are fourths and fixths. See TETRACHORD and HEXACHORD, or

FOURTH and SIXTH.

Mr Carre, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, lays down a new general proposition of the proportions which two Cylinders are to have in order to form the accords or consonances in music.

And 'tis this, that the folid Cylinders, whose founds yield those accords, are in a triplicate and inversed ratio of that of

the numbers, which express the same accords.

Suppose, for example, two Cylinders, the diameter of whose basses and lengths are as 3:2, 'tis evident the solidities will be in the ratio of 27:8, which is the triplicate ratio of 3:2, we say that the sounds of these two Cylinders will produce a fifth, which is expressed by those numbers, and that the biggest and longest will yield the grave sound, and the smallest the acute one; and the like of all others. See Sound, GRAVITY and ACUTENESS.

ACCRESSIMENTO, fignifies augmentation, as punto d'accresimento, point of augmentation. See Punto and Note.

ACUTE, is understood of a sound or tone which is shrill or high in respect of some other. See Sound. In this sense the word stands opposed to grave. See GRAVE.

Sounds confidered as acute and grave, i.e. in relation of gravity and acuteness, constitute what we call tune, the foundation of all harmony. See Concord and Harmony.

ACUTENESS, that which conflitutes and denominates

2 found acute. See Acute.

There is no such thing as acuteness and gravity absolutely so called, they are only relations; so that the same sounds may be either acute or grave, according to that other sound they refer to, or are compared with. See Relation.

The degrees of gravity and acuteness make so many tunes or tones of a voice or sound. See Tone, Tune, Voice,

and Sound,

ADAGIO

ADAGIO, ADAG°, or AD°, is one of the words used by the *Italians* to denote a certain degree or distinction of time. See TIME.

The Adagio expresses a slow time, slowest of any except

grave. See GRAVE.

The triples \(\frac{3}{1}\), \(\frac{3}{2}\), are ordinarily Adagio. See TRIPLE.

AD LIBITUM, a term purely Latin, used very often instead of the Italian term, si piace, if you please. See SI PIACE.

AD QUISITA, is the Latin term for the Proflambanomenos of the ancient fystem, or the last note added thereto. See Proslambanomenos and System.

A DUE, or Doi, A TRE, A QUARTO, &c. fignifies for two, for three, or four, &c. parts. See Obligato.

AEQUISUONI. See Suoni and Unison.

AEQUIVAGANS. See SYNCOPE.

AFFETTO, or AFFETUOSO, that kind of music which must be performed in a very tender, moving and affecting manner; and for that reason, rather slow than fast.

AGOGA, or AGOGI. See Usus.

ALAMIRE, the name of one of the notes in the modern scale. See SCALE and GAMUT.

ALLABREVE, the name of a movement, whose bars consist of two semi-breves, or four minims, &c.

ALLAZOPPA. See ZOPPA.

ALLEGRETTO, a diminutive of Allegro, which therefore means pretty quick, but not fo quick as Allegro. See ALLEGRO.

ALLEGRO, is used to fignify that the music ought to be performed in a brisk, lively, gay and pleasant manner, yet without hurry and precipitation, and quicker than any except Presto. See Presto.

The usual fix distinctions succeed each other in the following order, Grave, Adagio, Largo, Vivace, Allegro, and

Presto. See each in it's place.

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It is to be observed, the movements of the same name as Adagio, or Allegro, are swifter in triple than in common time; the triple \(\frac{3}{4}\) is Adagio, Allegro or Vivace; the triples \(\frac{6}{3}\) \(\frac{4}{9}\) \(\frac{12}{8}\) are most commonly Allegro. See TRIPLE.

If preceded by Poco, it weakens the strength of it's signification, intimating that the music must not be performed quite so brisk and lively as Allegro would require if it stood alone.

If Allegro be preceded by Piu, it adds to the strength of it's signification, requiring the music to be performed brisker and gayer than Allegro alone intimated.

ALLEGRO Allegro, fignify much the same as Piu Allegro.

B 2

ALLEGR

ALLEGRO ma non presto, brisk and lively, but not too hastily.

ALLEMAND, a fort of grave and folemn music, whose

measure is full and moving.

ALL ROVERSCIO, ALLA BREVE, ALLA DI-RITTA, ALLA ZOPPA. See ROVERSCIO, DIRITTA ZOPPA, &c.

ALMAIN, a fort of air that moves in common time.

ALMANDA, a certain air or tune where the measure is in common time, and movement flow.

ALT, is a term applied to the high notes in the scale. The word is formed of the Latin Altus. See Scale and Diagram.

ALTERA sesqui. See SESQUI. See also Propor-

ALTERATISUONI. See Suono.

ALTERNATIVE MENTO, denotes to play or fing two airs or fongs the one after the other, or rather the different parts of the same song alternately.

ALTISTA, the person who sings the Haut Contre is

thus called.

ALTO, \{ \begin{aligned} Viola, a fmall Viola. \} \end{aligned} See Viol and \\ Viola FTTA.

ALTO Concertante, is the tenor of the little chorus which

fings or plays throughout the piece.

ALTO Ripieno, the tenor of the great chorus which fings

or plays only now and then in some particular places.

ALTRO, is an Italian adjective, fignifying other, as una altera volta—play it over again; in altro modo—in another manner. See MANNER.

ALTUS, intimates that the music is the upper or coun-

ter tenor, and is common in music for many voices.

AMBITUS. See Modo.

AMBROSIAN Chant, thus called from St Ambrose, Archbishop of Milan, who composed it for the service of that church in the fourth century, it was distinguished from the Roman Chant in that it was stronger and higher. See CHANT.

ANACAMPTOS, a term made use of by Martianus Capella, to signify what is otherwise called Dustus revertens, or in Italian, Conducimento ritornante. See Ductus.

ANDANTE, from the verb Andare, to go, fignifies especially in thorough basses, that the notes are to be played distinctly.

ANIMA, or ANIMATO, fignifies much the same as

Allegro, with life, briskly. See ALLEGRO.

ANTHEM, a church fong, performed in cathedral and other fervice, by the chorifters, divided for that purpose into two chorusses, who sing alternately. See Chorus and Song.

The word at first was used both for plalms and hymns

when thus performe!. See PSALM and HYMN.

St Ignatius is by Socrates represented as the author of this way of finging among the Greeks; and among the Latins St Ambrose. Theodoret attributes it to Diodorus and Flavian.

Amalarius Fortunatus has wrote expressly of the order of

anthems, de antiphonarum ordine.

At prefent the term is used in a somewhat narrower sense, being applied to certain passages taken out of the psalms, &c. and accommodated to the particular solemnity in hand.

ANTIFONI Suoni. See SUONO.

ANTIPHONA, an anthem. See Touno.

ANTIQUE Music. See Music.

APOTOM E, is the remaining part of an entire tone after a greater femi-tone has been taken from it. See Tone and Semi-Tone.

The proportion in numbers of the Apotome is 2048: 2187. The Greeks thought that the greater tone could not be divided into two equal parts, for which reason they called the first part Apoton, and the other Limma or Lemma, in this imitating Pythagoras and Plato.

The word is derived from the Greek anoleuvo - abscindo-

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APOGIATURA, is when in any part of a fong there are two notes that are fome distance from one another, as a third or fifth; and in playing such passage the Musician puts in small intermediate notes ascending or descending, as thus

APYCNOS, is faid of the diatonic genus, from it's being plain and easy, that is, not crouded with minute divifions, but having great or spacious intervals in comparison with the chromatic and enharmonic. See each under it's proper article, see also Suoni.

APICNI Suoni, are founds distant one or more octaves, and yet concord, the Suoni Apycnoi of the Grecian scale were Proslambanomenos, Nete Synemmenon and Nete Hyperbolcon.

ARCHI Leuto, an arch or very large and long Lute, and but little different from the Theorba Lute; used by the Italains

lians for playing thorough bass. See Lute and THE.

ARCO, a Bow or Fiddle Stick. Stromenti d' Arco - inffruments played with a Bow.

ARE or Alamire. See ALAMIRE.

ARIA, a fong, air or tune. See Song and Tune. ARIETTA, a little short fong, a sonnet or catch.

See SONNET.

ARIOSA or Ariose, in the movement of a common

fong or tune.

ARSIS and Thesis, are Greek terms used in composition; as when a point is inverted or turned, 'tis said to move per Arsin and Thesin, i. e. when a point rises in one part and salls in another, or salls in one part and rises in another, whence is produced an agreeable variety, though properly speaking, 'tis also the rise and sall of the hand in beating the time. See Per Arsis.

ASSAI, is an *Italian* adverb of quantity, which is often joined to the words Allegro, Adagio, Presto, &c. and fignifies as some pretend, much, and according to others that the measure and motions of the piece be kept in a middle degree of quickness or slowness; quick or slow enough, but not too much of either. See ALLEGRO.

ASSAYING, is a flourishing before one begins to play, to try if the inftrument be in tune; or to run divisions to lead one into the piece before us.

ATEMPO giusto, fignifies to fing or play in an equal,

true and just time. See TIME.

ATTO, an act, as of a play, opera, &c. Atto di Cadenza, is a certain disposition of the sounds or notes, which not only makes a cadence in one part, but directs and points out in others. As when the bass rises a sourth or falls a fifth, this motion is really a cadence, and at the same time is a sign that the other parts thereupon perform their proper cadences. See CADENCE.

AUTHENTICO, Authentic, chosen or approved: This term is applied by the Italians to sour of the church modes or tones in music, which rise a sourth above their dominants, which are always fifths above their finals, i. e. rise to compleat their octaves, in this distinguished from the plagal modes, which fall a sourth below their finals. See Tone and Mode. See also Harmonica Divisione. But if we reckon the musical modes, which Glarean, Zarlin, and other eminent modern writers make twelve, there will be fix authentic, and six plagal. See Tuono.

B.

B.

Signifies Bass or Basso. Bass and Basso. B, B C, denote Basso continuo, which see.

BAG-PIPE, a musical instrument of the wind kind, chiefly used in country places. It consists of two parts: The first is a leather bag which is blown like a foot-ball by means of a porvent, or little tube fixed to it, and stopped by a valve. The other part consists of three pipes or flutes, the first is called the great pipe or drone, the fecond the little one, which passes the wind out only at bottom, and the third has a tongue and played by compressing the bag under the arm when full. and opening and stopping the holes, which are eight, with the The little pipe is ordinarily a foot long; that played on, thirteen inches; and the porvent, fix. - This instrument takes in the compass of three octaves.

BALETTO, is what we call a Balet, a fort of dance, the air whereof begins with a quaver, the hand rifing; it has two strains of four or eight bars each, and is beat in two or

four times quick.

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В.

Among the French the word Balet has another fignification, for tis by them used for a succession of airs, in all forts of movements whether brisk or flow, with which the dances agree, and are carried on as the strains or motions differ.

BANDORA, a kind of ancient mulical instrument

with strings resembling a Lute.

BAR, a stroke drawn perpendicularly a-cross the lines of a piece of music, including between each two, a certain quantity or measure of time, which is various as the time of the mulic is either triple or common.

In common time, between each two bars is included the measure of four crotchets; in triple, three. The principal ule of these bars is to regulate the beating or measuring of

time in a concert. See TIME and MEASURE. BARDONE, as Violadi Bardoni. See VIOLA.

BARIPICNI, or Suoni Baripicni, fignify in general any low, grave or deep found. See Sound and Suono.

But in particular the lowest of any three notes that are to one another A to B flat, and B natural is thus called, the

next Mesopicni, and the highest Oxipicni, which see.

BARITONO, called by the French, Basse Taille, or Concordant, i. e. that goes high and low; those that can fing thus may ferve either as tenor or bass upon occasion. IENOR and BASS.

BASS,

BASS, that part of a concert which is most heard, which consists of the gravest and deepest sounds, and which is played on the largest pipes or strings of a common instrument, as of an Organ, Lute, or on instruments larger than ordinary for that purpose, as Bass Viols, Bassoons, Bass-hautboys, &c. See each under it's proper Article.

Musicians hold the Bass to be the principal part of the concert, and the soundation of composition; though some will have the Treble the chief part, which others only make an

ornament.

Counter BAss, is a fecond or double Bafs, where there are feveral in the same concert.

Theorough Bass, is the harmony made by the Bass Viols or Theorbos continuing to play both while the voices sing, and the other instruments perform their parts, and also silling up

the intervals when any of the other parts stop.

M. Brossard observes the Thorough Bass to be part of the modern music, first invented in the year 1600, by an Italian named Ludovicus Viadana. 'Tis played by cyphers marked over the notes on the Organ, Spinet, Harpsichord, Theorbo, Harp, &c. and frequently simply, and without cyphers on the Bass Viol, Bassoon, &c.

BASSETTO, a Bass Viol or Violin of the smallest fize, so called in distinction of Bass Viols or Violins of a larger

fize. See Bass and Viol.

BASIS. See TRIAS HARMONICA.

BASISTA, the person who plays or sings that part of a piece of music called the Bass or Counter Bass. See Basso.

BASSO, for the most part signifies the Bass, but sometimes in pieces of music for several voices, the singing Bass is more particularly so called.

Basso Concertante, the Bass of the little chorus, or that

which fings and plays throughout the piece.

Basso Continuo, the thorough or continual Bass, which is commonly distinguished from the others by figures over the notes in music books, which figures are only proper for the Organ, Harpsichord, Spinet, Theorbo, Lute, Harp, &c. this is often fignished by the letters, B C.

Basso Recitante. See Concertante.

Basso Ripiéno, the Bass of the grand chorus that sings or plays now and then in some particular places, generally only during the chorus.

Basso Viola, a Bass Viol. See Bass VIOLIN.

Basso Violino, a small Bass Viol or Violin.

BASSOON, a musical instrument of the wind kind, ferving as a bass in concerts of wind music, as of Flutes,

Haut boys,

Hautboys, &c. To make it portable it is divided into two parts. Its diameter at bottom was formerly nine inches, at present 'tis but four at most, and it's holes are stopped with keys, &c.

like large Flutes. It serves as Bass to the Hautboy.

BASS Violin, a musical instrument of the same form with the Violin, except that 'tis much larger. 'Tis struck like that with a Bow, has four strings and eight stops, divided into half notes, or semitones. The sound it yields is much more grave, sweet and agreeable than that of the Violin, and of much better effect in a concert. See VIOLIN.

BATTUTA, the motion of beating with the hand or

foot, in directing the time. See TIME.

The Italians use the phrase A Tempo Giusto, after a recitative, to show that the measure is to be beat true and just, which during that recitative was conducted irregularly to favour some action, or to express some passion, &c.

BELL, a machine ranked by Musicians in the number

of instruments of percussion.

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The Bell hath three parts, the body or barrel, the clapper within fide, and the ear or canon, whereby tis hung to a large beam of wood. It is made of a compound metal of twenty pounds of pewter to an hundred of copper, called Bell-metal. The thickness of it's edges is usually to of the diameter, and it's height twelve times it's thickness. The Bell-founders have a Diapason or Bell-scale, wherewith they measure the size, thickness, weight and tone of their Bells. The use of Bells is summed up in these two lines,

Laudo Deum vorum, plebem voco, congrego clerum

Defunctos ploro, pestem sugo, festa decoro.

The first Bells are said to have been made at Nola in Campania, whereof St Paulinus was Bishop; it is affured at least that they were first brought into the church by him; and hence 'tis added they had their Latin names Nolæ and Campanæ; but others say they take these names, not because invented in Campania, but because the manner of hanging and balancing them as used at present, was first practiced there; or at least they were hung on the model of a fort of balance invented in Campania. For in the Latin writers we find Campana statera for a steelyard, and the Greek xanaarcenter for ponderare—to weigh.

The invention of church Bells is by Polydore Virgil afcribed to Pope Sabinian, St Gregory's successor, but by mistake, for there is mention made of Bells by St Jerome cotemporary with Paulinus. In effect Pope Sabinian did not invent Bells, but was the first who appointed the commonical

hours should be distinguished by them.

C

We find Bells mentioned by Ovid, Tibullus, Martial, Statius, Manlius, and the Greek authors, under the names of Tintinnabula, and founding brafs. Suetonius, Dion, Strabo, Polybius, Josephus, and others, mention them under the appellation of Petasus, tintinnabulum, æramentum, crotalum, signum, &c. but these appear to have been no more than bau-

bles, and little like those huge Bells among us.

Hieronymus Magius, who has wrote a treatife express upon Bells, (wrote when in chains in Turkey, and which is very remarkable purely from his memory, without the affiftance of any books) makes large Bells a modern invention. Indeed we don't hear of any before the fixth century. In 610 we are told that Lupus Bishop of Orleans being at Sens, then befieged by the army of Clotharius, frighted away the befiegers by ringing the Bells of St Stephen's.

The first large Bells in England were mentioned by Bede towards the latter end of that century. They feem to have been pretty common in the year 816. The Greeks are usually thought to have been unacquainted with them 'till the ninth century, when their construction was taught them by

a Venetian.

Indeed it is not true that the use of Bells was intirely unknown in the ancient eaftern churches, and that they called the people together as at present with wooden mallets. Les Alatius in his differtations on the Greek temples, proves the contrary from feveral ancient writers. It is his opinion that Bells first began to be disused among them after the taking of Constantinople by the Turks, who it seems prohibited them, least their found should disturb the repose of fouls, which, according to them, wander in the air. adds, that they still retain'd the use of Bells in places remote from any intercourse with the Turks, particularly very ancient ones in mount Athos.

F. Simon thinks the Turks rather prohibited the Christians the use of Bells out of political than religious reasons, inafmuch as the ringing of Bells might ferve as a fignal

for the execution of revolts, &c.

The City of Bourdeaux was deprived of all it's Bells for rebellion; and when it was offered to have them restored, the people refused it, after having tasted the ease and convenience of being freed from the constant din and jangling of Bells.

Matthew Paris observes, that anciently the use of Bells was forbid in time of mourning, though at prefent they make one of it's principle ceremonies. Mabillon adds that ir was an ancient cuftom to ring Bells for persons about to

expire,

expire, to advertise the people to pray for them; whence are derived our Passing Bells.

Lobineau observes, that the custom of ringing Bells at the approach of thunder is of some antiquity; but that the design was not so much to shake the air and so dissipate the thunder, as to call the people to church to pray that the parish might be preserved from that terrible meteor.

The custom of christening and blessing of Bells is very ancient; some say 'twas introduced by Pope John XIII. in 972, but it is evidently of an older standing, there being an express prohibition of the practice in a Capitular of Charlemain in 789. Alcuin says it was established before the eighth century; so that what has been said of Pope John XIII. is only to be understood of an order of that Pope for restoring the practice which had been disused.

Nankin, a city of China, was anciently famous for the largeness of it's Bells; but their enormous weight having brought down the tower, the whole building fell to ruin, and the Bells have ever fince lain on the Ground. One of those Bells is near 12 English feet high, the diameter 7½, and it's circumference 23; it's figure is almost cylindric, and the thickness of the metal about it's edges 7 inches; from the demensions of this Bell it's weight is computed 50,000 pounds, which is more than double the weight of that at Erfort, said by F. Kercher to be the largest Bell in the world. These Bells were cast by the first Emperor of the preceeding Dynasty, about 300 years ago. They have each their name, the Hanger Tcheui, the Eater Che, the Sleeper Choui.

Father Le Comte adds, that there are seven other Bells in Pekin, cast in the reign of Youlo; each of which weighs 12,000 pounds, but the sound even of their biggest Bells is very poor, being struck with a wooden instead of an iron clapper.

The Egyptians had none but wooden Bells, except one brought by the Franks into the monastery of St Anthony.

The found of the Bell arises from the vibratory motion of it's parts, much like that of a musical chord. The stroke of the clapper it is evident must change the figure of the Bell, and of round make it oval; but the metal having a great degree of elasticity, that part which the stroke drove farthest from the centre will sly back again, and this even somewhat nearer the centre than before; so that the two points which were before the extreams of the longer diameter now become those of the shorter. Thus the circumference of the Bell undergoes alternate changes

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of figure, and by means thereof gives that tremulous motion to the air wherein founds confift. See Sound.

The found of the fame Bell or Chord is a compound of the founds of the feveral parts thereof; so that where the parts are homogeneous, and the dimensions of the figure uniform, there is such a perfect mixture of all those founds, as constitute one uniform, smooth and even found. See TUNE and VIBRATION.

Mr Haukesbee, and others, have found by experiment, that the found of a Bell struck under water, is a fourth deeper than in the air; though Mersenne says it is of the same pitch in both elements.

Bells are heard further on plains than on hills, and still further in valleys than on plains, the reason of which will not be difficult to assign, if it be considered that the higher the sonorous body is, the rarer is it's medium, consquently the less impulse it receives, and the less proper vehicle it is to convey it to a distance.

BELL HARP, a musical instrument of the string kind, thus called either because shaped like a Bell, or by reason the common players thereon swing it about as a Bell on it's biass, it being hung on a string, and rested against them for that purpose

There is a notable difference between the shape of this instrument and that of the Irish or Welch Harp. See HARP.

It's length is about three feet, it's foundboard is usually of the same wood as that of a Spinet or Harpsichord, having a rose carved in the middle; it's strings are of brass or steel wire, fixed at one end, and stretched across the soundboard by screws fixed at the other end next the player. The number of strings is not fixed; sometimes more, sometimes less. They are struck with the thumb only of each hand, the right hand plays the treble, the lest the bass, but the thumbs are armed with a little wire pin or needle in order to draw the sound the clearer. It takes in the compass of three or sour octaves, according to the number of strings.

It may perhaps be the Lyra or Cythara of the ancients; but we find no mention of it under the name it now bears, which must be allowed to be modern, however ancient the

instrument may be. See Lyra, Music, &c.

BELLOWS of an Organ, are machines contrived to give wind to the pipes, which by that means produce a found. See ORGAN.

The bellows of an Organ are in proportion to the inftrument, each having an aperture of four inches, that the valve may play eafily. There should also be a valve at the nose of

the bellows, that one may not take the air from the other. Toblow an Organ of 16 feet, there are required 4 pair of bellows.

BIANCHA. See NOTE and MINIM.

BINARY measure is a measure wherein you beat equally; or the time of rising is equal to that of falling. This is usually called common time, beside which there is Binary triple. See MEASURE, TIME, and TRIPLE.

BENEPLACITO. See ABENE PLACITO.

BISCHROMA is the fame as our triple quaver. See

BIZARRO, or con Bizarria, fignifies with changes capriciously, sometimes fast, at others slow, strong, soft, &c. at the sancy of the composer, or player.

BMI is the third note in the modern fcale of Music.

See SCALE and MUSIC.

BMOLLARE or Molle, is one of the notes of the fcale of Musick, usually called fost or flat in opposition to Bquadro. See BQUADRO.

BOMBARDO, a musical instrument of the wind kind, much the same as the Bassoon, and is used as a Bass to the Hautboy. See HAUTBOY and BASSOON.

BQUADRO or Quadrato, or Durale called by the

French Bquarre from its figure

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This is what we call B natural or sharp, in distinction to B mol, or stat b. See FLAT and SHARP.

As the \Rightarrow flat when placed before any note, denotes that note to be lowered a femitone minor, fo does the Quarre or raise it to its natural or diatonic situation.

Again if the flat b be placed before a note in the thorough Bass it intimates that it's third is to be minor, and if placed with any cypher over a note in the Bass as b 6, or b 5, c it denotes that the fixth or fifth thereto are to be flat. See Fifth, Sixth, Sc.

But if the Quadro be placed over any note or with any cypher in the thorough Bass, it has the contrary effect; for thereby the note or interval thereto is raised to it's natural order. Both these characters are used in other parts beside the thorough Bass, wherein they affect only the note to which they are prefixed, i. e. they either raise or lower that note alone. See CHARACTER.

BRACIO or BRAZZO is applied to certain Infiruments that are played with a bow, and held up to the neck by the left arm, such as the Violin, whether first,

second, third, &c. See VIOLIN.

BREVE

BREVE is a note, formed like a square, without a tail, and equivalent to two Semibreves or sour Minims. See CHARACTER and MUSIC.

Also a measure of quantity which contains two strokes down with the hand and as many up. But this must be understood with regard to Common Time under this fign

But when this character is under the directions of the triple major, or perfect time, if followed by one or more of the same value, or by a point, it is equal to three times, or a whole Bar; and if notes of less value follow it, as Semibreves or Minims, its value is then reduced to two Times, or two thirds of the Measure. See Modo, Time, Pro-LATION, NOTE, FIGURA, LEGATURA and TRI-PLE.

This is often tied with other notes, for which fee LEGA-

The Breve in the Time marked now contains but two times, from whence the *Italians* call Common Time played very quick *Alla Breve*; and this movement they often use in their church musick. See CAPELLA.

BRIDGE, that part of a stringed instrument over

which the strings are stretched.

Bridges are of divers kinds, as the Bridge of a Violin or

Bass-Viol, the Bridge of a Lute, Harpsichord, &c.

The Bridge of a Violin or Fiddle is about one inch, and a quarter high, and near an inch and a half long, sometimes entirely plain, and sometimes with holes carved in it by way of ornament; it is rounded a little on the upper part, where the strings are laid in little notches for their reception; the reason whereof is, that the bow may strike either of them at pleasure, without touching any other; the under part of it is hallowed in the middle, so that it bears on the body of the instrument only at each end; it is placed about five inches from the bottom of the body.

Under the Bridge within fide is placed a little slip of wood, called the sound post, it's use is to bear against the Bridge and affist the belly of the instrument in sustaining the pressure of the strings on the Bridge. The strings without the Bridge would give little or no sound, but it is the body of the instrument and it's uniform construction together with the eveness of the strings that produces what is commonly

called a good tone. See VIOLIN.

The Bridge of a Bass-Viol is the same in proportion to the instrument, these Bridges are usually made of some porous wood.

The

The Bridge of a Lute is very different from that above described, in that it is but half an inch deep, though four, five or six inches long, entirely strait; it is placed about four inches from the bottom of the instrument, and the strings are stretched over it, as those of the Violin are. See Lute.

Harpsichords have several Bridges, but there are two principle ones, one of which is placed at the upper end between the jacks and the screws, about half an inch high, and to what length required, usually about three seet, quite strait; the other is put along the side of the instrument shaped almost like the letter S, between the ends of the strings and the jacks, in a certain proportion. Instead of notches these Bridges have little wire pins to keep the strings in their places, these two are required when there is but one row of keys and two stops, if there are more, other Bridges are required. See HARPSICORD.

These are usually made of Fir or the same wood with the

Sound Board.

BRILLANTE, brisk, airy, gay and lively.

BUCCINA, an ancient military, or musical instrument used in war; it is usually taken for a kind of trumpet, which opinion is confirmed by Festus, by his defining it a crooked horn, played on like a Trumpet. Vigetius also obferves, that the Buccina was bent into a semicircle, in which

it differed from a Trumpet, Tuba.

Varro adds, they were called Cornua, because originally made of the horns of cattle, as is still done among some people. Servius seems to say that they were first made of goats horns; and the scripture called the instruments used both in war and in the temples Keren Jobel, i. e. ram's horns, and Sapharoth Haijobelim, Buccinæ of Rams. The musical instruments used in the military march are Buccina, Trumpets, Littuus, Clarion, Cornet, Fise, Drum, Tymbal, &c. which see.——The Marino Buccinæ given by Poets and Painters to the Tritons and Sea Gods, are shells twisted in the form of a Snail's. The word comes from Bucca, the mouth, because played on by the mouth.

BUONO, as Tempo Buono, fignifies a certain time or part of the measure that is good, i. e. more proper for certain things than any other, as to end a cadence, or pause, to place a long syllable or a syncoped Dissonance, Concord, &c. The Tempo Buono of any measure whatever, should be on the first part thereof when the hand is down, and in common time of four Times to the Bar, the third is also a Tempo Buono, the others, as the second and last

times of the measure, are called Tempi di Cattiva. See CATTIVA and ACCENT.

BURDEN in some musical instruments, the Drone or Bass, and the pipe or string that plays it; the Bagpipe principally hath a part thus called. Hence that part of a song that is repeated at the end of every stanza, is called the Burden of it.

The word comes from the French Bourdon, a staff, or pipe made in form of a staff, imitating the gross murmurs of Bees or Drones. Some call the Prostambanomenos, or the note added to the ancient system, by this name. A chord which is to be divided to perform the intervals of music when open and undivided, is also called the Burden.

BURRE, BOUREE, or BOREE, a kind of dance, composed of three steps joined together in two motions, begun with a crotchet rising. The first copulet contains twice four measures, the second twice eight, it consists of a balance and coupee. It is supposed to come from Auvergne in France.

C.

C Denotes the highest part in thorough bass. See

Again a simple C, or rather a semicircle, placed after the Cliff, intimates that the music is in common Time, which is either quick or slow, as it is joined with Allegro or Adagio; if alone it is usually Adagio.

If the C or semicircle be crossed thus \$\overline{\psi}\$, or turned thus \$\overline{\psi}\$, the first requires that the Air be played quick, and the last very quick. See CHARACTER.

In pieces of old music, we find a character thus =. and

very often it's reverse thus) both which are at prefent almost out of use, but see PROLATION.

CADENCE, according to ancient musicians is a series of a certain number of notes, in a certain interval, which strike the ear agreeably, and especially at the end or close of the song, stanza, &c. A Cadence ordinarily consists of three notes.

CADENCE, in the modern music may be defined a certain conclusion of a song, or of the parts thereof in many places of the piece, which divide it, as it were, into so many numbers or periods. The Cadence is when the parts sall or terminate on a chord or note, the ear seeming naturally to expect it; and is much the same in a song as a period that closes the sense in a paragraph of a discourse.

A Cadence is either perfect or imperfect; a perfect Caelence is that which consists of two notes sung after each other, or by degrees conjoined in each of the two parts, it is called perfect because it satisfies the car better than the other.

The Cadence is faid to be imperfect when it's last measure is not in octave or unison, but a fixth or a third; as when the bass instead of descending a fifth, descends only a third, or when descending, or, which is the same thing, rising a fourth, it makes an octave with the treble in the first measure, and a third major with the second. It is called imperfect because the ear does not acquiesce in the conclusion, but expects a continuation of the song.

The

The Cadence is faid to be broken when the bass instead of falling a fifth which the ear expects, rises a second either

major or minor.

Every Cadence is in two measures; sometimes it is suspended, in which case it is called a repose, and only consists of one measure, as when the two parts stop at the fifth without finishing the Cadence.

Mr Rousseau distinguishes two kinds of Cadences with regard to the Bass-viol, i. e. a Cadence with and without

a reft.

The Cadence with a rest, is when the singer that should shake the Cadence, stops a little before it shakes, on the note immediately above that which requires the Cadence. The Cadence without a rest is when that stop is omitted.

Traite de la Viol, p. 76.

There are also simple and double Cadences; the double ones again are various, the more double are those made after a long stop, the less double those after a short one. The Cadences are all to be accommodated to the character of the air.

The word comes from the Latin Cadencia a fall, the Cadence being the fall or conclusion of a series of harmony, proper to terminate the whole, or part. The French musicians call a shake a Cadence, but this is to confound terms.

CADENZA Fiorita, Sfuggita, d' Inganno, &c. See

FIORITA, SFUGGITO, INGANNO, &c.

CAMERA, fignifies chamber music, as Sonata Concerto di Camera, are Sonatas, Concertos, &c. composed for a chamber, in distinction to those played in churches, cha-

pels, or great concerts. See SONATA, &c.

CANCHERIZANTE, or Chancherizato, is an Italian word fignifying a piece of music that begins at the end, being a retrograde motion from the end of a song, air, or tune to the beginning. See IMITATION, CANON, FUGHA, &c.

CANON, a Greek term. See REGOLA and MONO-

CHORD.

CANON, is a rule or method of determining the inter-

vals of notes. See INTERVAL.

Ptolemy rejecting the Aristoxenian way of measuring the intervals of music by the magnitude of a tone, (which was supposed to be formed by the difference between a Diapente and a Diatessero;) thought that the musical intervals should be distinguished according to the ratios or proportions, which the sounds terminating those intervals bear to one another, when considered according to their degree of gravity and accuteness

outeness; which before Aristoxenus was the old Pythagorian way. He therefore made the Diapason consist in a double ratio of 2:1; the Diapente in a sesqui-alteral 3:2; the Diatessaron in a sesqui-tertian 4:3; and the tone itself in a sesqui-octave of 9:8, and all the other intervals according to the proportions of the sounds that terminate them.

Wherefore taking the Canon (as it is called) for a determinate line of length, he shews how this line is to be cut accordingly, so as it may represent the respective intervals, and this method answers to experiment in the different lengths of musical chords. See Chord, Monochord

and Music.

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CANON, fays Zarlin, was anciently certain marks or characters, placed at the head of perpetual figures, or pieces in Consequenza, to advertise in what manner such pieces were to be sung, called Canon, as being rules and directions for performing the parts.

CANON is also a short composition of two or more

parts, in which one leads, and the other follows.

CANONE Chiuso, or Canone in Corpo, is a perpetual fugue writ upon one line, with some marks to shew when

the parts that imitate are to begin and end.

CANONE partito, or risoluto, called by the Latins resolutio, is when all the parts of a perpetual sugue are writ either in partitions, or different lines, or in separate parts, with the proper pauses that each is to observe, and

therein differs from Canone Chiufo.

CANTATA, a fong or composition, intermixed with recitatives, little airs and different motions, and merely intended for a single voice with a thorough bass, though sometimes for two violins and other instruments. When the words or subjects are intended for the church it is called Cantata morali & spirituali: but when on love, Cantata amorose, &c.

If the words are well adapted to the music, it has fomething in it very agreeable, and generally seems to please by its varieties, consisting of grave parts and airs intermixed; first used in *Italy*, then in *France*, whence it

palled to us.

CANTICUM. See MOTETTO.

CANTILENÆ are no more than fongs, and figni-

fies in general pieces of melody well composed.

LCANTO is the treble, or at least the highest part of a piece. When it is marked with a C it is the upper bass: but the word Canto more properly signifies the first treble, unless the word seconds for the second, or ripiéno, for the D 2

treble of the grand chorus, be added. See Secondo and RIPIENO.

CANTO concertante is the treble of the principal concerting parts; this part generally plays and fings throughout. But being the chosen voices or instruments they sometimes rest during the chorus.

CANTO fermo, is what we call the plain fong, fuch was Pope Gregory's church music. The Italians call every part, whether plain or figured, that is the subject of

any counterpoint, a Canto fermo.

CANT o figurato, fignifies a composition wherein the parts differ from one another in their figures and motions, and is the contrary of Canto fermo.

CANTO ripieno, is the treble of the grand chorus. or that part that plays or fings in the grand chorus only.

CANTO simplice, is the same as Canto fermo. See CANTO FERMO, and CHANT.

CANTORE. See CHANTOR.

CANTUS, the treble or highest part in a concert. TREBLE.

CANZONE, in general fignifies a fong, wherein fome little fugues are introduced, but it is fometimes used for a fort of Italian poem usually pretty long, to which mufic may be composed in the stile of a Cantata. See CAN-If the word Canzone be added to a piece of instrumental music, it fignifies much the same as Sonata; to a piece of vocal much the same as Cantata. placed in any part of a Sonata, it fignifies much the fame as Allegro, and only denotes that the part to which it is prefixed is to play or fing in a brisk and lively manner.

CANZONETTA, a little fhort fong. The Canzonette Neapolitane have two strains, each whereof is fung twice over, as the Vaudevilles of the French. The Canzonette Siciliane are a species of jigg, the measure whereof is usually $\frac{12}{8}$ or $\frac{6}{8}$, sometimes both are rondeaus, and begin with the first strain to end.

CAPELLA is properly indeed a chapel. But the Italians use the word for a company of musicians assembled together to fing, or play a concert, or piece of music of many parts. From this when we meet with da Capella, we must understand that all the parts are to play together, which makes what we call the grand chorus, or tutti unisoni; and from this they say Maestro di Capella, for a master of music.

The fong to be fung thus, has commonly this fign $\frac{1}{4}$, and marked alla treve, the time is generally beaten by the breve and quick, unless contradicted by fome other term, as Lente, Adagio, &c.

CAPO, is to fay head or chief, as Capo di instrumenti, the master or head of the instruments, being the persons whose care is to instruct and direct those that person the instru-

mental part of a concert.

CAPRICETTO is a diminutive of Capricio, which

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CAPRICIO means Caprice, the term is applied to certain pieces, wherein the composer gives a loose to his fancy, and not being confined either to particular measures or keys, runs divisions according to his mind, without any premiditation; this is also called *Phantasia*. See Phantasia and Prelude.

CAPRICIOSO, intimates the music to be in a capricious irregular manner, as if without any aim or de-

fign. See CAPRICIO.

CARTA, or Car, or Cart, are used by the Italians for page or solio, as Car. 6a. the fixth page, Cart. 4a, &c.

CASTANETS, Castagnettes, or Castanettas, a kind of musical instrument of the pulsatile kind, wherewith the Moors, Spaniards and Bohemians accompany their dances, Sarabands and Guittars, serving only to direct the time. It consists of two little round pieces of wood dried and hollowed in the manner of a spoon, the concavities whereof are placed one on another sastened to the thumb, and beat from time to time with the middle singer to direct their motions and cadences. They may be beat eight or nine times in the space of a meessure, or second of a minute.

CATACOUSTICKS, called also Cataphonics, the science of reflected sounds, or that part of Acoustics or Phonics which consider the property of sounds and ecchoes. See

Sound and Phonics.

CATTIVO, bad, unfit, as Cattivo tempo, is a certain part or time of the measure, whereon it is not proper to perform certain things; as to end a cadence, or place a long fyl-

lable, &c.

The reason why this is called Tempo di Cattiva, or the bad part of the measure, is because here you may let pass a discord without any great offence; it properly signifies what we call the unaccented part of the bar, and is the second and last note thereof in common time, and the middle one of every the solution. See BUONO and ACCENT.

CAUDA

CAUDA. See CODA and VIRGULA.

CAUDATUS. See Punctus Caudatus.

CELER progressus. See Supposition.

CHACONE, or Chaconde, a kind of dance in the air of a Saraband, derived from the Moors. The bass always consists of four notes, which proceed in conjoint degrees, whereon they make divers concords and copulets with the same burden. See Bass and Burden.

The word is formed of the Italian ciacona of cecone a blind man, this air being faid to have been invented by

fuch a one.

CHAMADE, a certain beat of Drum, or found of Trumpet, which is given to the enemy as a fignal to inform them of some fort of proposition to be made to the commander, either to capitulate, or to have leave to bury their dead, make a truce, or the like.

The word is derived by Menage from the chiamata of

clamare, -to cry out.

CHANT, is used for vocal music in churches. In ecclesiastical history we find mention made of many kinds of Chant, or song, the first is the Ambrosian Chant, which was established by St Ambrose Bishop of Milan, and was distinguished from the Roman in that it was stronger and

higher.

The next is the Gregorian Chant, introduced by Pope Gregory the great, who established schools of chantors, and corrected the church music or song. This is what above is called the Roman Chant, and is still retained in churches under the mame of plain song, for in this the choir and people sing in unison, or altogether in the same manner. See CANTO FERMO.

CHANTOR, a person who sings in the choir of a

cathedral.

St Gregory first instituted the office of Chantors, and e-rected them into a body called Schola Cantorum; though Anastassus seems to attribute their rise to Pope Hillary, who lived an hundred years before Gregory.

This is grown an obselete word, instead of which we

now fay chorifter, or finging man.

CHARACTERS, certain marks, figns or notes, where-

by fomething is conveyed to the mind.

CHARACTERS used in music, and of musical notes, with their proportions, are as follows.

Character of	a Large	•	8
I A Long	-	•	4
A Breve	-	•	2
O A Semibreve	•	•	. 1
P A Minim	=	-	1 2
A Crotchet	ē	Ē	<u>\$</u>
A Quaver	, p	E	7
A Semiquaver,	or E		17
A Demi-Semi	quaver. or	B	3 2

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Characters of the artificial Notes.

character of a sharp note. This character at the beginning of a line or space, denotes that all the notes in that line or space, are to be taken a semi-tone higher than in the natural series; and the same affects all the octaves above and below, though not marked.

When this mark is prefixed to any particular note, it shews that note alone, to be taken a femitone higher than it would be without such character.

Contrary to the other above, that is, a semi-tone lower.

When prefixed to any particular note, it shews that note alone to be taken a semi-tone lower than it otherwise would be.

Character of a natural note, where in a line or feries
of artificial notes, marked at the beginning either b or #,

the natural note happens to be required, it is denoted by this character.

Characters of the figned Cliffs.

Character of the treble Cliff.

The mean Cliff.

7 The base Cliff.

2 or ‡ or ‡; Characters of common duple time; fignifying the measure of two crotchets to be equal to two notes, whereof four make a semibreve.

C = Characters that distinguish the movements of common time. The first implying slow, the second quick, and the third very quick.

1 3 3 3 8 6; Characters of fimple triple time; whose measure is equal to three semibreves, or to three minims, &c. 6 or 6 or 6 Characters of mixed triple time, where the measure is equal to fix crotchets, or fix quavers.

of triple time, called also the measure of twelve times. See TRIPLE.

Rests or pauses of Time.



CHELIS. See VIOL.

CHIAVE. or Cleff, a term or character used in mufic. See CLEFF and CHARACTER.

CHIAVE Maestro, signifies the fundamental key or note

of a fong. See KEY and CLEFF.

CHIESA, a mark fet to music to distinguish that designed for churches, from that designed for chambers or private concerts, as Sonata di Chiesa, is a sonata for the church.

CHITARIS. See CYTHARA and VIOL.

CHITTARRA is the Italian word for a Guittarr. See Guittarr.

CHITTARRONE. See THEORBO.

CHIUDENDO, is the participle of the verb Chiudere, to end, finish, or conclude; as Chiudendo col Ritornello, col' Paria, fignify to end with a Ritornello, or some passage which has been before sung in some part of the piece. See RITORNELLO.

CHIUSO. See CANON.

CHORDS, or CORDS, are strings or lines, by whose vibrations the sensation of sound is excited; and by whose divisions, the several degrees of tune are determined. See TUNE and SOUND.

Some fay they are called *Cords* or *Chords* from the *Greek* xop Sa, a name given by the Physicians to the intestines, in regard that the strings of some musical instruments are ordinarily made of guts.

Others are made of brass or iron wire, as Harpsichords,

Spinets, &c.

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Chords of gold wire in Harpfichords, would yield a found almost twice as strong as those of brass; and those of steel, a feebler found than those of brass, as being both less heavy, and less ductile.

Mr Perrault observes, that of late they have invented a way of changing the Chords, to render their founds more

ftrong without altering the tone.

The fixth *Chord* of Bass-Viols, and the tenth of large Theorbo Lutes, consist of fifty threads or guts; there are fome of them an hundred feet long, twisted and polished with *Equisetum* or horse-tail.

For the division of Chords, so as to constitute any given interval, the rules are as follows.

To affign such a-part of a Chord A B, as shall constitute any concord for example a fifth (or any other interval) with the whole Chord.

E

Divide

Divide the line AB, into as many parts as the greatest number of the interval has units; e. g. the fifth being 2:3.

A C B

The Line is divided into three parts: of these I take as many as the lesser number, e. g. 2 = AC; AC is the part sought; that is two lines, whose lengths are to each other as

A B to A C, make a fifth.

Hence if it be required to find feveral different sections of the line A B, e. g. such as shall be octave, fifth, or third greater. I reduce the given ratios 1:2, 2:3 and 4:5 to one fundamental; the series becomes 30:24, 2=15, the fundamental is 30; and the sections sought are 24 the third greater; 20 the fifth; and 15 the octave.

To find feveral sections of a line AB, that from the least part, gradually to the whole, shall contain a given series of intervals, in any given order, viz. so as the least to the next greater contain a third greater; that to the next greater a

fifth; and that to the whole an octave.

Reduce the three ratios 4: 5, 2: 3, and 1: 2 to one

scries: hence we have 8: 10; 15: 30.

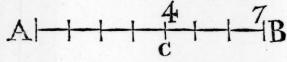
Divide the line into the number of parts of the greatest extream of the series, viz. 30; we have the sections sought at the points

of division, answering the several numbers of the series, viz. at the points C, D, and E; so as A C to A D, is a third; A D to A E, a sifth; to A B an octave.

To divide a line, A B, into two parts, to contain betwixt

them any interval, e. g. a fourth.

Add together the numbers containing the ratio of the interval, e. g. 3: 4, and divide the line into as many parts as the fum, e. g. 7: the point of division answering to any of the given numbers, v. g. 4 or 7, gives the thing sought.



For the harmonical division of Cords.

To find two sections of a line which, with the whole, shall be in harmonical proportion with regard to their quantity.

Take any three numbers in harmonical proportion, as 3-4-6 and divide the whole line into as many parts as the

the greatest of these three numbers, viz. 6; and at the points of division answering the two other numbers, v. g. 3 and 4 you have the fection fought.

To find two fections of a line, which together with the whole, shall be harmonical, with respect to quantity, or tune.

Take any three numbers concord with each other, v. g. 2: 3 and 8; and divide the line by the greatest; the points of division answering the other two give the section

To divide a Chord, A B, in the most simple manner, so as

to exhibit all the original concords.

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Divide the line into two equal parts C, and subdivide the parts C B into equal parts at D, and again the parts C D into equal ED

parts at E: Here A C to A B is an octave; A C to A D a fifth; AD to AB, a fourth; AC to AE, a third; AE to AD, a third; DCAE to EB, a fixth. AE to AB a fixth. See Monochord: See also Tune, Concord,

HARMONY, O.C. Chord is also used in music for the note or tone to be touched, or founded; in which fense it is applicable to all

the intervals of music. See Concord.

In this sense, the fifth is said to consist of five Chords, or See FIFTH. See also FOURTH, &c. Sounds.

CHORO favorito. See FAVORITO.

CHORO Spezzato, according to Zarlin, a composition

of 2, 3, or 4 Choruses. See CHORUS.

CHORUS, is when at certain periods of a fong, the whole company are to join the finger in repeating certain

copulets or verses.

The word Choro, or Chorus, is often met with instead of Tutti or da Cappella, which mean the grand Chorus. A doi a tre a quartro chori is for two three or four Choruses. When after the word Chorus we find prime or 1° we must understand that it is to be played in the first Chorus, if 2d 11do or secondo, in the second; and consequently that the composition is for eight voices or different parts.

CHRESIS is a Greek term. See Usus.

CHROMA is a term fignifying colour or ornament, which the Italians take from the Greek to name a note or character of time by us called a Quaver. See CHARAC-TER and QUAVER. And when the word Semi is added thereto, it means our Semiquaver thus 2. Eight of the

E 2

former

former are contained in a bar, and fixteen of the latter in common time. See Fusa, also Dosbupla, Nonupla and TRIPLE.

CHROMA, a graceful way of finging or playing with Quavers and Trilloes.

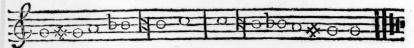
CROMATICI suoni. See Suon 1.

CHROMATIC, in the ancient music, the second of the Genera or Kinds, into which the consonant intervals were subdivided into their concinnous parts. See GENUS. The other two kinds are the Enharmonick and the Diatonick; which see.

The Chromatic abounds in Semitones; it had it's name, by reason the Greeks mark'd it with the character of colour, which they call xeaps, or, as P. Parran says, because it is the medium between the other two, as colour is between black and white; or because the Chromatic kind varies and embellishes the Diatonic by it's Semitones, which have the same effect in music, as the variety of colours have in painting.

The degrees, or as Aristotle calls 'em the elements, of the Chromatic Genus, are the two Semitones and Triemitonium. And its founds stand in the following order, Proslambanomenos, Hypate Hypaton, Parhypate Hypaton, Lychanos Hypaton Chromatice, Hypate Meson, Parypate Meson, Lychanos Meson Chromatice, Meson, trite Synemmenon, paranete Synemmenon, Chromatice, nete Synemmenon, Paramese, trite Diezeugmenon, paranete Diezeugmenon Chromatice, nete Diezeugmenon, trite Hyperbolæon, paranete Hyperbolæon Chromatice, and nete Hyperbolæon.

A Chromatic fourth ascending and descending.



Aristoxenus divides the Chromatic Genus into three species; the Molle, Hemolion, and Tonicum. Ptolemy into Molle or Antiquum, and Intensum.

The Molle expresses a progression by small intervals, the Intensium by greater. See Species and Genus. The

Spartans banished it their city because of its softness.

Mr Malcolm observes, that we are at a loss to know what use the antients could make of these divisions, and subdivisions into Genera and Species; all acknowledge the Diatonic to be the true melody. The others seem only numerous irregularities calculated to please the fancy by their novelty and oddness; and are besides so difficult, that sew, if any, are said to have practiced them accurately. See Music.

Mr Malcolm

Mr Malcolm herein fays the Diatonic is the true melody, but it is plain we cannot do without the accidental flats and sharps which belong to the Chromatic Genus; hence it appears that he speaks something too slightly of a part which is the only ornament or cause of that vast variety of airs in the modern music, though we have not near the varieties of either of them.

CIACONA, a Chacoon or Tune composed to a

ground base. See CHACONE.

CIFFRA, a cypher; thus the *Italians* name the figures which they use over the bass notes in thorough basses, to mark the accords which are to be made as accompanyments to those on the lines. See thorough Bass.

CIRCOLO, this character CO is called by this name as is O fometimes; both of which we often find after the cliff in old music for triple time, or tempo persetto.

See TIME and TRIPLE.

CIRCOLO Mezzo, is a diminution of four quavers or femiquavers, or notes of equal value, which represent a semi-circle proceeding by conjoint degrees as thus,



here are two Circoli mezzi, the one afcending the other defcending.

CIRCONCURRENT E Conducimento. See Usus. CLARICHORD, or Manichord, a musical instrument

in the form of a Spinet. See SPINET.

It has 49 or 50 stops, and 70 strings, which bear on 5 bridges, the first whereof is highest, and the rest diminished in proportion; some of the strings are in unison, their num-

ber being greater than that of the stops.

There are feveral little mortaifes for passing the jacks, armed with little brass hooks, which stop and raise the chords, instead of feathers used in Virginals and Spinets. But what distinguishes them most, is, that the chords are covered with pieces of cloth, which renders the sound sweeter, and softens it so that it cannot be heard at any considerable distance; hence some call it the dumb Spinet; whence it comes to be particularly used among the nums, who learn to play, and are unwilling to disturb the dormitory.

The Claricherd is more ancient than either Spinet or Harpficord, as is observed by Scaliger, who gives it only 35

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CLARINO, a Trumpet, a doi Clarini, for two Trum-

pets. See TRUMPET or CORNET.

CLARION, a kind of Trumpet, whose tube is narrower, and its tone shriller than that of the common Trumpet.

Nicod fays the Clarion is now used among the Moors, and the Portuguese who borrowed it from the Moors; it served anciently for a treble to several Trumpets that sounded tenor and bass. See TRUMPET.

He adds, it was only used among the cavalry, and marines. Menage derives the word from the Italian, Clarion, of the Latin, Clarus, by reason of the clearness of its sound.

CLAVECIMBALO, grave Cymbalum. See Spr-

NET or HARPSICORD.

CLAVIS and CLAVES. See CHIAVE and CLEFF:

CLAUSULA. See CADENCE.

CLEFF, Cliff, or Key, a mark fet at the beginning of the lines of a fong, which shews the tone, or key, in which the piece is to begin; or, it is a letter marked on any line, which explains, and gives name to all the rest. See Key.

Antiently every line had a letter marked for a Cleff, now a letter on one line fuffices, fince by this all the rest are known; reckoning up and down in the order of the letters.

It is called *Cleff* or Key, because hereby we know the names of all the other lines, and spaces; and consequently the quantity of every degree or interval. But because every note in the octave is called a key, though in another sense, this letter marked is called in a particular manner the signed *Cleff*; because being written in any line, it not only signs and marks that one, but explains all the others.

By Cleff therefore, for distinctions sake, we mean that letter marked or signed on a line which explains the rest; and by key, the principal note of a song, in which the me-

lody closes.

There are three figned Cleffs, c, f, g, the Cleff of the highest part in a song called treble or alt, is g on the second, sometimes also upon the first, likewise on the third line, counting upwards. The Cleff of the bass, or lowest part, is f, generally on the sourth line upwards; often on the second, third and fifth: For all the other mean parts the Cleff c, sometimes on one, and sometimes on another line; indeed some that are really mean parts, are frequently set with the Cleff g. See Treble, Tenor, Bass, &c.

It must however be observed, that the ordinary fignatures of the Cleff's bear little resemblance to those letters. Mr Malcolm thinks it would be well, if we used the letters

themselves.

themselves. Kepler takes a world of pains, to shew that the common fignatures of the Cleffs are only corruptions of the letters they represent. See their figures in characters of music.

The Cleffs are always taken fifths to one another, that is, the Cleff f is the lowest, c a fifth above it, and g a fifth above c.

When the Cleff is changed, which is not frequent in the mean Cleffs, 'tis with defign to make the fystem comprehend as many of the notes of the song as possible, and so to have the sewer notes above and below it. If then there be many lines above the Cleff, and sew below it, this purpose is answered by placing the Cleff on the first or second line; if there be many notes below the Cleff, it is placed higher in the system. In effect, according to the relation of the other notes to the Cleff note, the particular system is taken differently in the scale; the Cleff line making one in all the varieties. See Scale. But still in whatsoever line of the particular system the Cleff is found, it must be understood to belong to the same in the general system, and to be the same individual note or sound in the scale.

By this constant relation of Cleff, we learn how to compare the feveral particular fystems of the feveral parts; and know how they communicate in the scale, that is, which lines are unifons, and which not; for 'tis not to be supposed that each part has certain particular bounds, within which an another must never come: Sometimes the treble v. g. comes lower than fome of the mean parts, or even with To put together therefore into one fystem all the parts of a composition, written separately, the notes of each part must be placed at the same distance above and below the proper Cleff, as they stand in the separate system; and because all the notes that are consonant (or heard together) must stand perpendicularly over each other, that the notes belonging to each part, may be distinctly known, they may be made with fuch differences as shall not confound or alter their fignification as to time; but only shew that they belong to this or that part: Thus shall we see how the parts change and pass through one another; and which in every note is higest, lowest or unison.

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The use of particular signed Cleffs then is an improvement with respect to the parts of any composition; for unless some of the keys in the particular systems were distinguished from the rest, and refer'd invariably to one place in the scale, the relations could not be distinctly marked.

It must be here observed, that for the performance of one fingle piece, the Cleff's only serve for explaining the intervals in the lines and spaces; so that we need not regard what part of any greater system it is; but the first note may be taken high or low, as we please: for as the proper use of the fcale is not to limit the absolute degree of tune, so the proper use of the figned Cleff is not to limit the pitch at which the first note of any piece is to be taken; but to terminate the tune of the rest, with relation to the first, and confidering all the parts together, to determine the relation of the several notes, by the relation of their Cleff's in the scale. Thus the pitch of tune being determined in a certain note of one part, the other notes of that part are determined by the constant relation of the letters of the scale, and the notes of the other parts, by the relation of their Cleffs.

In effect, for performing any fingle part, the Cleff may be taken in any octave, i. e. at any note of the same name, provided we do not go too high or too low, for finding the rest of the notes of the song: But in a concert of several parts all the Cleff's must be taken, not only in the relation, but also in the places of the system abovementioned, that

every part may be comprehended in it.

The difference of Cleffs in particular systems makes the practice of music much more difficult and perplexed than it otherwise would be, both with respect to instruments, and to the voice. This occasioned Mr Salmon to propose a method of reducing all music to one Cleff, whereby the same writing of any piece of music, should equally serve to direct the voice and the instrument, which he calls an universal character; but this is by most authors looked on as chimerical. The natural and artificial note expressed by the same letter as c and c #, are both set on the same line or space.

When there is no character of flat or sharp at the beginning with the Cleff, all the notes are natural: and if in any particular place, the artificial note be required, 'tis signified by the sign of \Rightarrow or \Rightarrow , set on the line or space before that note. If the flat or sharp be set at the beginning in any line or space with the Cleff, all the notes in that line are artificial ones; that is, are to be taken a semitone higher or lower than they would be without such sign; the same affects all the octaves above and below, though they be not so marked. In the course of the song

if the natural note be sometimes required, 'tis signified by .

The

The marking the fystems thus by the flats and sharps, Mr Malcolm calls the fignature of Cleffs. See Note, Tune, Transposition, Flat, and Sharp.

The F fa ut Cleff is thus marked being only proper for the bass or lower parts.

The C fol fa ut Cleff thus and is peculiar to the inner

or middle parts, as tenor or counter-tenor.

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The G fol re ut Cleff thus and belongs to the treble or highest part. See PART, TREBLE, TENOR and BASS.

The B fa is thus distinguished D. The B mi or sharp thus #; B quadro or natural thus

CLEINE alt posaune. See TROMBONE OF SACKBUT. CLOSE. See CADENCE.

CODA, Tail, we often find at the end of a canon or fugue, two or three measures to end with, after having repeated them several times, and this the Italians call Coda, it serves only to end the piece, which, without it, might be carried on to infinity.

CODA, in ancient compositions is when one part continues on a sound which is it's cadence, while the others proceed to modulate for 4, 5, 6,—8, or more bars.

COLORATO Contrapunto. See FIGURATE

COLORATURA, is a term applied by the *Italians* to all variations, trillos, diminutions, &c. that can render a fong agreeable. See each in it's proper place, VARIATION, DIMINUTION, &c.

COME Sopra, fignifies as above, or that part over again, which words are used when any foregoing part is to be

COMMA, is the smallest of all the sensible intervals of tune. See Music.

The COMMA is about the tenth part of a tone.

Mr Sauveur says a Comma is the difference between a tone major and minor. It is seldom used except in the theory of music, to shew the justness of the concords; for in practice the division is drowned and lost; each lesser tone ordinarily contains ten Commas.

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Lancelot divides the tone into nine Commas, fo that according to him a Comma is the ninth part of a tone.

The proportion of the greater Comma in numbers is 80:81,

that of the smaller is 2025 to 2048. See TONE.

COMMON Time is the same as duple or double time. See TIME.

COMMUNE according to Gaudentius the philosopher, is one of the modes of the ancients, otherwise called the Hypodorian. See Hypodorica.

COMPIETA, a fort of pfalm or hymnused in the

church service of the Roman Catholicks.

COMPONISTA, is properly a composer of any thing, but here it more particularly means a composer of fongs, melody or harmony. See Composition.

To Compose, or make any piece of music, tune, air or fong, either vocal or instrumental, and to set any words

on any subject to music.

COMPOSITION, is the art of disposing musical founds into airs, songs, &c. either in one or more parts, to be sung by a voice, or played on instruments. See Music, and Song.

Zarlin defines it the art of joining and combining concords and discords together, which are the matter of music.

Under Composition are comprehended the rules Ist of Melody, or the art of making a single part, that is contriving and disposing the simple sounds so as that their succession and progression may be agreeable to the ear. See Melody.

2dly. Of Harmony, or the art of disposing and concerting feveral single parts together so as that they make one agree-

able whole. See HARMONY.

It may here be observed, that melody being chiefly the business of the imagination, the rules of its composition serve only to prescribe certain limits to it, beyond which the imagination, in searching out the variety and beauty of airs ought not to go. But harmony being the work of the judgment, it's rules are more certain and extensive, and more difficult in practice. In the variety and elegancy of the melody the invention labours a great deal more than the judgment, so that method has little place; this must not be understood that the judgment is discarded, for good melody requires a true observation of harmony: A person indeed unskilled in music may make a piece of melody, which by mere chance may be good, but a person of good judgment cannot often err. In harmony, the invention has not so much to do, for the composition is conducted from a nice observation

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of the rules of harmony, which must yet in some fort be affished by the imagination.

COMPOSIZIO. See Composition, Melody

and HARMONY.

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COMPOSTO, means compounded or doubled, as a fifteenth is an octave doubled, or an octave is compounded of a fifth and a fourth. See OCTAVE, FIFTH and FOURTH.

CON is an Italian word fignifying with, and is joined

often with other words, as

CON Affetto. See AFFETTUOSO. CON Bizzarria. See BIZZARRO.

CON Dolce maniera, in a foft and fweet manner.

CON Diligenza, with care diligently.

CON Discretione, with judgment or descretion.

Con é fenza Violini, with and without Violins. This phrase is used when there are some parts of a piece to be sung with, and some without Violins.

CON é senza stromenti, with and without instruments.

Con furia, in a very quick and strong manner.

Con Ofervanza, with care, to play a piece of music just, and exactly as 'tis marked without adding or diminishing.

CONCERT. See CONCERTO, MUSIC and CAMERA. CONCERTATO, intimates the piece to be composed in such a manner as that all the parts may have their recitoes, be it for two, three, four or more voices or instruments; so they say Messa or Niesse concertate, Salmi concertati, for one, two, three, &c. voices, &c.

CONCERTANTE, fignifies those parts of a piece of music that fing or play throughout the whole piece, either alone or accompanied, to distinguish those parts that play

now and then in particular places.

CONCERTO, or Concert, popularly a confort, a number or company of mulicians playing or finging the

fame piece of music or fong at the same time.

The word Concert may be applied where the music is only melody, that is, the performers all in unison; but it is more properly as well as more usually understood of harmony, or where the music consists of divers parts, as treble, tenor and bass, &c. See Melody, Harmony and Part.

A CONCERTO for any instrument, as Organ, Harpsichord, Violin, &c. is a piece of music wherein either of these instruments has the greatest part, or in which the performance is partly alone, and partly accompanied by the other parts.

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In Con-

In CONCERTO, is almost the same as Concertante, which see.

CONCERTO Groffi, the grand chorus of a concert, or those places where all the several parts perform or play

together.

CONCINNOUS Intervals: discords are distinguished in Concinnous and in Inconcinnous intervals; the Concinnous intervals are such as are sit for music, next to and in combination with concords, being neither very agreeable nor disagreeable in themselves, but having a good effect as by their opposition they heighten the more effential principles of pleasure, or as by their mixture and combination with them they produce a variety necessary to our being better pleased. See HARMONY.

The other discords that are never used in music, are called Inconcinnous. See DISCORD and PROPORTION.

Systems are also divided in Concinnous and Inconcinnous, a system is said to be Concinnous or concinnously divided, when the parts thereof considered as simple intervals, are Concinnous, and are besides placed in such an order between the extreams, that the succession of sounds from one extream to another may have an agreeable effect. See System. Where the simple intervals are Inconcinnous or ill disposed between the extreams, the system is said to be Inconcinnous.

CONCLUSIO. See CADENCE, BUONO, LONGA. CONCORD, is the relation of two founds that are always agreeable to the ear; whether applied in fuccession

are consonance. See Sound.

If two simple sounds be in such a relation, or have such a difference of tune, as that being sounded together, they make a mixture, or compound sound, which affects the ear with pleasure, that relation is called *Concord*, and whatever sounds make an agreeable compound in consonance, the same will always be pleasing in succession, or will follow each other agreeably. See Tune.

The reverse of Concords are what we call discords, which is a denomination of all the relations or differences of tune

that have displeasing effects. See DISCORD.

Concord and harmony are in effect the same thing, though custom has applied them differently. As Concord expresses the agreeable effect of two sounds in consonance, so harmony expresses the agreement of a greater number of sounds in consonance: Add, that harmony always implies consonance, but Concord is sometimes applied to succession; whence

it is, that Dr Holder, and some other writers, use the word consonance for what we call Concord. See Consonance.

Unisonance, then, being the relation of equality between the tune of two sounds, all unisons are Concords in the first degree; but an interval being a difference of tune, or a relation of inequality between two sounds, becomes a Concord or discord, according to the circumstances of that particular relation. Indeed some restrain Concord to intervals, and make a difference of tune essential thereto; but this is precarious. Mr Malcolm thinks, that as the word implies agreement, 'tis applicable to unisons in the first degree. See Unison.

'Tis not easy to assign the reason or foundation of concordance. The differences of tune, we have already observed, take their rise from the different proportions of the vibrations of the sonorous Bodies, i. e. the velocity of those vibrations in their recourses; the frequenter those recourses are, the more acute the tune, and vice versa. See GRAVITY.

But the effential difference between Concord and discord lies deeper; there does not appear any natural aptitude in the two sounds of a Concord to determine it to give a pleasing sensation, more than in the two sounds of a discord. The different effects are merely arbitrary and must be resolved into the divine good PLEASURE.

We know, by experience, what proportions and relations of tune afford pleasure, and what not; and we know also how to express the differences of it, by the proportions of numbers. We know what it is that pleases us, though we don't know why. We know v. g. that the ratio of 1:2 constitutes Concord, and 6:7 a discord; but on what original grounds agreeable or disagreeable ideas are connected with those relations, and the proper influence of the one on the other, is above our reach.

But, by experience, we know that the following ratios of the lengths of chords are all *Concord*, viz. 2:1, 3:2, 4:3, 5:4, 6:5, 5:3, 8:5; that is, take any chord for a fundamental which shall be represented by the number 1, and the following divisions thereof will be all *Concord* with

the whole, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 3, 5, fo that the distinguishing character between Concords and discords must be looked for in these numbers expressing the intervals of sounds; not abstractedly in themselves, but as expressing these numbers of vibrations.

Now unisons are in the first degree of Concord, or have the most perfect likeness or agreement of tune, and there-

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ough refles harounds onfohence fore have fomething in them accessary to that agreement, which is found less or more in every Concord, but as Concord implies a difference of tune they may not be properly so called. 'Tis not true that the nearer two sounds come to an equality of tune the more agreement they have; therefore 'tis not in the equality and inequality of the numbers

that this agreement lies.

Further, if we consider the number of vibrations made in any given time, by two chords of equal tune; on the principle laid down they are equal, and therefore the vibrations of the two chords coincide or commence together as frequently as possible; that is, they coincide at every vibration; in the frequency of which coincidence, or united mixture of the motion of the two chords, and of the undulations of the air occasioned thereby, it is that the differences of the

Concords and discord must be sought.

Now the nearer the vibrations of two ftrings approach to a coincidence as frequent as possible, the nearer they should approach the condition and consequently the agreement of unifons, which agrees with experience. For if we take the natural feries 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and compare each number to the next, as expressing the number of vibrations in the same time of two chords whose lengths are reciprocally as those numbers, the rule will be found exact, for 1:2, is best, then 2:3, after 6 is infufferable; the coincidence being fo rare, though there are other ratios that are agreeable besides those found in the continued order, viz. 3:5, 5:8, which with the preceding five are all the concording intervals within or less than an octave, or 1:2, i. e. whose acutest term is greater than half the fundamental. On this principal 3:5 will be preferable to 4:5, because being equal in the number of vibrations of the acuter term, there is an advantage on the fide of the fundamental, in the ratio 3:5, where the coincidence is made at every third vibration of the fundamental, and every fifth of the acute term; so also the ratio 5:8, is less perfect than 5:6; because the vibrations of each fundamental are equal, yet in the ratio 5:6, the coincidence is at every fixth vibration of the acute term, and only at every eighth in the other case.

Thus we have a rule for judging of the preference of Concords from the coincidence of their vibrations; agreeable to which rule they are disposed in the order of the following table, in which the names of the Concords in practice, the ratio of their vibrations, the length of their chords and the number of coincidences in the same time are

expressed.

· For

The Table of Concords:

Ratios or Vibrations.

Coincidencs:

			Acute		
	Terms.				
Unifon	1	:	1	C	
Octave, 8ve	2	:	I	60	
Fifth, 5th	3	:	2	30	
Fourth, 4th	4	:	3	20	
Sixth greater, 6th greater	5	:	3	20	
Third greater, 3d greater	5	:	4	15	
Third leffer, 3d leffer	6	:	5	12	
Sixth leffer, 6th leffer	8	:	5	12	

Grave Acute Lengths.

Though the order be fettled by reason, yet it is confirmed by the ear. On this bottom Concords must still be more perfect, as they have the greater number of coincidences with regard to the number of the vibrations of both chords; and where the coincidences are equal, the preference will fall on that interval, whose acutest term has sewest vibrations in each coincidence; which rule however, is in some cases contrary to experience; and yet 'tis the only rule discovered.

F. Mersenne, indeed, and after him Kercher, gives us another standard for settling the comparative persection, with regard to the agreement of the extreams in tune: And 'tis this—

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The perception of concordance, fay they, is nothing; but the comparing of two or more different motions, which at the same time affect the auditory nerve; now we cannot make a certain judgment of consonance till the air be as often struck in the same time by two chords, as there are units in each number expressing the ratio of that concord, v. g. we can't perceive a fifth, till two vibrations of the one chord and three of the other are accomplish'd together; which chords are in length as 3 to 2; The rule then is, that those concords are the most simple and agreeable, which are generated in the least time, and those on the contrary, the most compound and harsh, which are generated in the longest Time.

For instance, let 1, 2, 3, be the length of three chords, 1:2, is an octave, 2:3, is a fifth, and 1:3, an octave and fifth compounded, or a twelfth: The vibrations of

and fifth compounded, or a twelfth: The vibrations of chords being reciprocally as their lengths, the chord 2 will

'vibrate once while the chord I vibrates twice, and then exists an octave; but the twelfth does not yet exist, because

the chord 3 has not vibrated once, nor the chord 1, thrice;

which is necessary to form a twelfth.

'Again, for generating a fifth, the chord 2 must vibrate thrice and the chord 3 twice, in which time the chord I will have vibrated fix times; and thus the octave will be

thrice produced, while the twelfth is only twice produced, the chord 2 uniting it's vibrations fooner with the chord I.

than with the chord 3, and they being fooner confonant

than the chord I or 2 with that 3.'

Whence that author observes, many of the mysteries of harmony relating to the performance of harmonious inter-

vals, and their fuccession, is easily deduced.

But this rule by examining it by the other instances, Mr Malcolm has shewn defective, as it does not answer in all positions of the intervals, with respect to each other; but a certain order wherein they are to be taken being required, and there being no rule with respect to the order that will make this standard answer to experience in every case; so that at last we are left to determine the degrees of concord by experience, and the ear.

Not but that the degrees of concord depend much on the more or less frequent uniting the vibrations; and the ear's being more or less uniformly moved, as above; for that this mixture or union of motion, is the true principle, or, at least, the chief ingredient in *Concord*, is evident; but because there seems to be something further in the proportion of the two motions, necessary to be known, in order to fix a catholick rule for determining all the degrees of

Concord, agreeable to fense and experience.

The result of the whole doctrine is summed up in this difinition: Concord is the result of a frequent union or coincidence of the vibrations of two sonorous bodies, and by consequence, the undulating motion of the air, which being caused by the vibrations, are like and proportional to them, which coincidence, the more frequent it is, with regard to the number of vibrations of both bodies, performed at the same time, cateris paribus, the more perfect is that Concord, till the rarity of the coincidence, in respect to one or both the motions, commence discords. See some of the remarkable

phænomena

phænomena of found accounted for from this theory, under the word UNISON. See also INTERVAL.

Concords are divided into fimple or original, and compound.

A fimple or original Concord is that whose extreams are at a distance less than the sum of any two other Concords.

On the contrary, a compound Concord is equal to two

or more fimple Concords.

Other musical writers state the division thus, an octave 1:2, and all the other inferior Goncords above expressed, are simple or original Concords: And all greater than an octave, are called compound Goncords; as being composed of, and equal to the sum of one or more octaves, and some simple Concord less than an octave, and usually in practice denominated from that simple Concord.

As to the composition and relations of the original Concords, by applying to them the rules of the addition and substraction of intervals, they will be divided into simple and compound, according to the first and more general notion;

as in the following table.

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kable mena Simple Concords. Compound Concords,

Octave composed.

5:6 a 3d less 5th (3d gr & 3d less 5th and 4th 6th less 4th & 3d less 6th gr 2d less 6th gr 2d gr 3d less 3d less 3d less 6th gr 2d th & 3d gr 3d less 4th.

The octave is not only the first Concord in point of perfection, the degrees of whose extremities are greatest and nearest to unison, insomuch that when sounded together, 'tis impossible to perceive two different sounds; but 'tis also the greatest interval of the seven original Concords; and as such contains all the less, which derive their sweetness from it as they arrive more or less out of it directly; and which decrease gradually from the octave to the lesser sixth, which has but a small degree of Concord. See Octave.

What is very remarkable, is the manner wherein these less Concords are found in the octave, which shews their

mutual dependencies.

The octave by mediate division resolves itself into a fourth and a fifth; the fifth again by immediate division, resolves itself into the two thirds; the two thirds are therefore found by division though not by mediate division; and the same is true of the two sixths. Thus do all the original Geneords arise out of the division of the octave, the fifth

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and fourth mediately and directly, the thirds and fixths im-

mediately.

From the perfection of the octave arises this remarkable property, that it may be doubled, and yet still preserve Concord, that is the sum of two or more octaves are Concord, though the more compound will be gradually less agreeable; but it is not so with any other Concord less than octave, the double, &c. whereof are all discords.

Again, what ever found is Concord to one extreme of the octave is Concord to the other also; and if we add any other simple Concord to an octave, it agrees to both its extremes, to the nearest extreme it is a simple Concord, to the

farthest a compound one.

Another thing observable in this system of Concords, is, that the greatest number of vibrations of the sundamental cannot exceed five; or that there is no Concord wherein the sundamental makes more than five vibrations, to one coincidence with the acute term. It may be added, that this progress of Concords may be carried on to greater degrees of composition, even in infinitum, but the more compound the less agreeable. So a single octave is better than a double one, and that than a triple one; and so of the sistes and other Concords; three or sour octaves is the greatest length we go in ordinary practice; the old scales went but two, no voice or instrument will go agreeably above sour. See Third, Fourth, Fifth, &c.

CONDUCIMENTO RETTO, RITTOR-

NANTE, CIRCONCURRENTE. See Usus.

CONJOINT degrees, are two notes which immediately follow each other in the order of the scale, as ut and re. See SCALE.

CONJOINT tetrachords, are two tetrachords or fourths where the same chord is the highest of one and lowest of the

other. See CHORD and FOURTH.

a part of a fugue or canon is faid to be inconsequenza when it follows the first part called the guide, imitating its motions,

notes and figures. See Fugue.

CONSONANCE is ordinarily used in the same sense with concord, viz. for the union or agreement of two sounds produced at the same time, the one grave, the other acute; which mingling in the air in a certain proportion occasion an accord agreeable to the ear. See Concord.

Dr. Holder on this principle defines confonance. "A paffage of feweral tuneable founds through the medium fre-"quently quently intermixing and uniting in the undulated motion, caused by the well proportioned commensurate vibrations of the sonorous bodies, and consequently arising sweet and pleasant to the ear; as on the contrary disonance, he maintains, to arise from disproportionate motions of sounds not mixing, but jarring and clashing as they pass, and arriving at the ear grating and offensive. Which notion of Consonance quadrates exactly with what we have already laid down for a concord: Accordingly most authors confound the two together; though some of the more accurate distinguish them, making Consonance to be what the word implies, a mere sounding of two notes together, or in the same time; in contradiction to the motion of those sounds in succession, or one after the other.

In effect, the two notions coincide; for two notes thus played in Consonance constitute concord; and two notes that please the ear in Consonance, will please it in succession. See

SUCCESSION.

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freiently Notes in Confonance conflitute harmony, as notes in fuccession melody. See HARMONY, MELODY. See also TUNE.

In the popular fense, Consonances are either simple or compound; the most perfect Consonance is unison; though many authors, both among the ancients and moderns, discard it from the number of Consonances; as conceiving Consonances an agreeable mixture of different sounds, grave and acute, and not a repetition of the same sound. See Unison.

The first Consonance is the octave, then the fifths, the fourths, the thirds and fixths: the rest are multuples or repetitions of

these. See Concord.

CONSONANS syncope, Consonans desolata, and Con-

sonans æquivagans. See SYNCOPE.

CONSONANTE, a word by which the *Italians* mean concords; or those intervals which afford pleasure, be they either perfect, as the fourth, fifth and eighth, or imperfect, as the third, sixth, &c. See Octave, &c.

CONSONANZA, the fame with CONSONANTE,

which fee

CONSONI Suoni, what Gaudentius fays of Confoni quadrates with what has been faid of concord. See Suoni and Concord.

CONSORT. See Concert.

CON Spirito. See SPIRITOSO, with life and spirit, gayly, &c.

CONSTITUTIO. See Mode and System.

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CONTINUATO, signifies, especially in vocal music, to continue or hold on a sound in an equal strength or manner, or to continue a movement in an equal degree of time all the way.

CONTINUED Bass, the same as thorough Bass, so called, because it goes quite through the composition. See Bass.

CONTINUED Thorough Bass, is that which continues to play constantly, both during the recitatives, and to sustain the chorus. See CHORUS.

CONTINUO, signifies the thorough Bass, as Basso continuo is the continual or thorough Bass, which is sometimes

marked in music books by the letters B C. which see.

CONTINUO, is a species of harmony or mode mentioned by Jules Pollux, and which, says Zarlin, answers to the perpetual burden of our Bag-pipes, which now and then must be harmonious.

CONTINUI Suoni. See Suono.

CONTINUUS, Bassus continuus & generalis, the same with Basso continuo, or B C.

CONTRA. See CONTRA TENOR, and ALTO.

CONTRALTO, or Contra'lto, means the Haut contre, which fee.

The Italians use this term with regard to Duo's, a doi contra'lti, for two Haut contres, because they play contrary to each other. See HAUT CONTRE and TENOR.

CONTRAPUNTISTA, any person that makes or

composes counterpoints, is thus called.

CONTRAPUNTO, Counterpoint, thus called, because originally the notes were only points placed one against

or over another. See COUNTERPOINT.

In general, every harmonious composition, or composition of many parts, is called Counterpoint. But one, two or more different parts composed upon a given subject, taken from the church music, is particularly called, in Italian, Sogetto di contrapunti. When the Tenor or any upper part is given for a subject, 'tis called Sogetto sopra, and the Bass or lower parts made to it, are called Contrapunti infra, or Sotto il sogetto. The subject is ordinarily in the Bass, and each note contains a bar of common duple time, or half a measure common of sour times; and the composition made to this subject is termed Contrapunto sopra il sogetto.

When a composition is made off-hand to a subject, either above or below, 'tis called Contrapunctum extemporaneum; and when the notes are placed one against another, note for note, 'tis called Contrapunto simplice; but when the notes of the subject and Counterpoint are of different figure and value, the

Counterpoint

Counterpoint then is called by the Italians, Composto, Colorato, Florido, Diminuto, &c. See each in it's place. Again if it's notes are not syncoped, 'tis called Contrapunto Sciolto. See SCIOLTO; but if on the contrary, the notes thereof be syncoped or tied, 'tis called Contrapunto legato. See LEGATO. If sugues or imitations are introduced, Contrapunto sugato: Again, if it be so composed that it may move above or below it's subject an eighth, tenth, twelfth, &c. which makes great variety of harmonies, 'tis stilled Contrapunto doppio. See Dorphio. Besides these there are an infinite number of others. See Counterpoint.

CONTRAPUNTO Legato, or Syntepato. See SYNCOPE.

CONTRA harmonical proportion, is that relation of three terms, wherein the difference between the first and second is to the second, as the third to the first. See Proportion.

CONTRARIO, contrary, as moto or movimento contrario, a contrary motion. See Moto and Fuga.

CONTRA Tenor, is the Counter Tenor. See TENOR and COUNTER TENOR.

CONVENIENTIÆ ac moræ Signum. See POINT and PAUSE.

CORD. See CHORD. Beside which it has a more general fignification; for we use it very often for note; sound, tone; as by the chord A or B, we mean the sounds represented by those letters.

CORNET, a Horn, a musical Instrument used by the

ancients in their wars. See Music.

Vigetius informs us that the legions had Trumpets, Cornets, and Buccinæ; that when the Cornets founded only, the enfigns regard, not the foldiers; that is, when the enfign was to march alone, without the foldiers, the Cornet alone was founded; as on the contrary, when the foldiers were to move with the enfign, the Trumpets alone were founded: That Cornets and Buccinæ founded a retreat; and Cornet and Trumpets during the course of the Battle. See Buccinæ and Trumpets.

CORNETTINO, is a fmall Cornet, and is nearly the fame with our Haut-boy, though not blown with a reed, but in the manner of a Trumpet. See HAUT-BOY.

CORONA or Coronata, is a femicircle C, inverted thus,

with a point . When this mark is found in all the parts of a fong, it denotes a general filence for the length of a bar, or that the performers may end if they please; but if it be placed over the last note of one part of the song only, it intimates

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that the note over which 'tis placed is to be held out 'till the other parts conclude: 'Tis also used in sugues or canons to mark where all the parts may stop, when they have a mind to end.

CORPO, or in Corpo, See Note and CANON.

CORRENTE, a fort of quick running French dance. See COURANT.

COSTUME, passions or affections. 'Tis by the Latins

called mores. See Usus.

COUNTER Fugue, is when fugues proceed contrary to each other. See Fugue.

COUNTER PART, the Bass is said to be a Counterpart to the treble. See TREBLE, TENOR and BASS.

COUNTERPOINT, the art of composing harmony, or disposing and concerting several parts so together, as that they make an agreeable whole. See Composition and Harmony.

Counterpoint is divided into simple and figurative; agreeably to the division of harmony, into the harmony of concords and

that of discords. See CONCORD.

Counterpoint took it's name hence, when music in parts was first introduced, their harmony being so simple, they used no notes of different time, and marked their consonances by points set against each other; hence in regard of the equality of the notes of time, the parts were made concord in every note, which was before John de Murs invented the modern notes.

This afterwards became denominated plain and fimple Counterpoint, to diffinguish it from another kind, wherein notes of different value were used, and discords as well as concords might be brought in between the parts, which they

call figurative Counterpoint.

Simple Counterpoint, or the harmony of concords, confifts of the imperfect as well as perfect concords, and may be therefore denominated perfect or imperfect, according as the concords are, whereof it is composed: Thus the harmony arising from a conjunction of any note with it's fifth and octave, is perfect; but with it's third and sixth imperfect; notwithstanding this the composition is perfect, 'tis the particular concords only that are called imperfect.

Now to dispose the concords, or the natural notes and their octaves in any key in a simple Counterpoint, observe with regard to the distinction into perfect or imperfect harmony, this general rule, viz. To the key to the fourth, and to the fifth, perfect harmony must be joined; to the second, third and seventh, an imperfect harmony is indispensible; to

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the fixth either a perfect or imperfect harmony. But when you keep the key, an imperfect harmony is given the fixth.

In the composition of two parts, observe, that though a third appears only in the treble, or the fourth and the fifth, yet the perfect harmony of the fifth is always supposed, and must be supplied in the accompaniments of the thorough bass to those fundamental notes.

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More particularly, in composition of two parts, the rules are; that the key may have either it's octave, or fifth, or third; the fourth and fifth may have either their respective thirds, fifths, or octave; the second, fixth, the third and seventh may have their respective thirds or fixths; and the last on many occasions may have it's false fifth as a passing note. Which rules hold the same in slat and sharp keys.

For the rules of Counterpoint, with regard to the succession of concords, it must be observed, that, as much as can be, the parts may proceed by a contrary motion, i. e. the bass may descend where the treble ascends, and vice versa: The parts moving either upwards or downwards the same way; two octaves or two fifths never follow one another immediately; two sixths never succeed each other immediately. Whenever the octave or fifth is to be made use of the parts must proceed by a contrary motion, except the treble move to such an octave or fifth gradually. If in a sharp key the bass descend gradually from the fifth to the fourth, the last in that case, must never have it's proper harmony applied to it, but the notes that were harmony in the preceeding fifth, must be continued on the fourth; thirds and fifths may follow one another as often as one has a mind.

Figurative Counterpoint is of two kinds, in one discords are introduced occasionally as passing notes, serving only as transitions from concord to concord; in the other, the discord bears a chief part in the harmony. See Discord.

For the first, nothing but concords are to be used in the accented parts of the measure, i. e. not by the gradual progression, but by proper preparation and resolution discords are absolutely necessary; in the unaccented parts discords may pass without any offence to the ear. This is called by most authors supposition; because the transient discord always supposes a concord following it; which is of infinite service in music. See Supposition.

For the second, wherein the discords are used as a solid and substantial part of the harmony, the discords that have place are the fifth when joined with the fixth, to which it stands in relation of a discord; the sourth when joined with the fifth;

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the ninth, which is the effect of the second and seventh, and the second and sourth.

These discords are introduced into harmony, with due preparation, and are to be succeeded by concords, which is called the

resolution of discords.

The discord is prepared by first substituting it in the harmony in quality of a concord; that is, the same notes which become the discord are first concord to the bass note immediately preceeding that to which it is a discord. The discord is resolved by being immediately succeeded by a concord, descending from it by the distance only of a second greater or second less.

As the discord makes a substantial part of the harmony, so it must always possess an unaccented part of the measure by gradual descent; but when prepared and resolved 'tis necessary on the accented part. Now to introduce discords into harmony, it must be considered what concord may serve for their preparation and refolution; the fifth, then, may be prepared either by an octave, fifth or third; and resolved either by third or fixth. The fourth may be prepared in all concords, and may be refolved into the fixth, third or octave. The ninth may be prepared in all concords except an octave; and may be resolved into third, fixth or octave. The seventh may be prepared in all concords, and resolved into third, fixth or fifth. The fecond and fourth are used very differently from the rest, being prepared and resolved into the bass. See HARMONY, CONCORD, DISCORD, KEY, CLEFF, MO-DULATION, &c.

COUNTER-TENOR, is one of the mean or middle parts, so called as if it were opposite to the tenor; by the

French called the Haut contre. See TENOR.

COURANT, is used to express the air or tune, and the

With regard to the first, Courant or Currant is a peice of musical composition in triple time, and is ordinarily noted in triples of minims, the parts to be repeated twice.

It begins and ends when he who beats the measure falls his hand with a small note before the beat; in contradiction from the Saraband, which usually ends when the hand is raised.

CROMA, rather Chroma. See CHROMA.

CROMETTA, Tripla, or Tripola Crometta, Semi Crometta. See TRIPLE. For Nonupla di Crome, Seftupla di Crome, Semi Crome, and Dosdupla di Crome and Semi Crome. See TRIPLE.

CROTALUM, a kind of Castagnettes or musical instrument, found on medals in the hand of the Priests of Cybele. The Crotalum differed from the Systrum; though authors often confound the two. It consisted of two little brass plates or rods, which were shook in the hand, and striking against each other made a noise.

It was fometimes also made of a reed split lengthwise, one part whereof struck against the other, and made a noise somewhat like that of a Crane's bill, whence that bird is called

Crotalistria, or player on the Crotala.

An ancient in Pausanius says that Hercules did not kill the birds of the lake Stymphalus, but that he drove them away by playing on the Crotala. On this footing the Crotalum must be exceeding ancient.

Clemens Alexandrinus attributes the invention of them to the Sicilians, and forbids the use of them to the Christians, because of the indecent motions and gestures that accompany them.

CROTCHET, one of the notes or characters of time marked thus requal to half a minim, and double a quaver.

See Note, QUAVER, MINIM, and CHARACTER.

'Tis not easy to conceive how it came by this Name of Crotchet, the word is apparently borrowed from the French Crotchet of Croche, a crook or hook; by reason of the additional stroke at the bottom, which gives it the appearance of a crook, and 'tis then changed into a quaver. See Quaver:

A dot added to a Crotchet thus en increases it's time by

one half, that is, makes it equal to a Crotchet and half, of three quavers. See TIME.

CROUST Æ, a Greek term. See STROMENTO.

CURRANT, a musical air in triple time. See Cou-

CURTAIL double, a mufical wind instrument like the Bassoon, which plays the bass to the Hautboy. See Bassoon and HAUTBOY.

CUSTOS, the same with mostra, or index. See each

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CYMBAL, a musical instrument among the ancients, called by the Greek name xumbarou and by the Latins Cymbalum.

The word is by Sylburgius derived from three feveral Greek roots, viz. from χυρΘ, crooked, from χυπέλλον, a cup, and from φωνή, voice.

Isodore derives it from cum and bellematica: An immodest dance used to accompany this instrument, but the real etymology appears to be from a well to account

logy appears to be from zune G, cavity.

The

The Cymbal was of brass like our Kettle-drum, and as some think in their form, though smaller, and it's use different.

Cafiodorus and Isiodore call it Acetabulum, the name of a cup or cavity of a bone wherein another is lodged or articulated; and Xenophon compares it to a horse's hoof, whence it appears it must have been hollow, which also appears from the figure of several other things denominated from it, as bason, caldron, goblet, casque, and even a shoe, such as those of Empidocles, which were of brass.

In effect, the ancient Cymbals appear to have been very different from our Kettle-drums in form and use; to their exterior cavity was fastened a handle, whence Pliny takes occasion to compare them to the upper part of the thighs Coxendicibus;

and Rabanus to a phial.

They were struck one against another in a cadence, and made a very acute sound: Their invention is attributed to Cybele, whence they were used in feasts and sacrifices; setting aside these occasions, they were seldom used but by dissolute and effemi-

nate people.

Lampadis, who has worte on this subject, attributes their invention to the Curetes or inhabitants of mount Ida in Crete; it is certain these, as well as the Corybantes or guards of the kings of Crete, and those of Rhodes and Samothriaca were reputed to excell in the music of the Cymbal.

The Jews had their Cymbals, or at least such instruments as the Greek and Latin translators render Cymbals, but as to their matter, form, &c. the critics are still in the dark.

The modern Cymbal is a paultry inftrument, chiefly in use among vagrants and gypsies; it consists of a steel wire in a triangular form, whereon are passed five rings, which are touched and shifted along the triangle with an iron rod held in the left hand, but it is supported in the right hand by a ring to give it the freer motion.

Durandus fays, that the monks use the word Cymbal for the bell hung in the cloister, used to call them to the resectory.

There is a kind of instrument which we likewise call a Cymbal, which differs greatly from that above described. It consists of a frame about four feet long, and two and a half wide, along which there is a bar of wood laid straight, and a second a-thwart from one corner to the strait one in this

manner, and a third straight, which has one like the other that meets it at one end within a little

little distance so that all the bars lye thus in the frame;

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on each of these bars is fixed an equal number of pins, about twenty eight upon the two first, and near twelve or thirteen or those behind; which pins are not sharp, but their points are rounded; each of these supports a bar or wedge of a particular kind of metal, but chiefly a compound of bell-metal and filver, at each end, the longest whereof is about ten inches, about one and a quarter wide, and about half an inch thick, or not quite so much; these bars have a round hole about half through, to fit the pins, the found of the longest is C, the others are diminished (in length only) according to the proportion of the intervals in music, and those of the second row answer to the flats and sharps of the Spinet: There is near forty in all, so that this instrument has something more than three octaves in compais, and may be reckoned an instrument of percussion by reason 'tis played by striking it with nobs of wood at the end of sticks. The found it yeilds is very agreeable, being fomething exceeding foft, the low notes refembling the Flute, but the high ones have not fo much duration as these, yet their found may be compared to that of a fmall Flagelet.

CYTARA, or Cythara, an ancient musical instrument, by some supposed to be the same with the Lyre, at least a species of Lyre; by others different; though it's precise structure does not appear. See Lyre.

The ancients describe it in the triangular form of the Greek Delta or letter $D \Delta$. The Poets ascribe it's invention to Apollo.

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OBBUTTIONE, from the Lank Date to the

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TATIVO. DESIGNATION AND CRATCHIO.

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LIPETMA ORDER

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D.

D In thorough basses, marks what the Italians call Descante, and intimates that the treble ought to play alone, as T

does the tenor, and B the bass. See DESCANT.

DA an Italian proposition, fignifying sometimes by, as Da Capella. See CAPELLA; sometimes for, as Sonata da Camera, See CAMERA; sometimes from, as Da Capo, from the beginning. See DC. or CAPO. Sometimes to, as Da Suonar, to sound or play; and likewise with, as Stromenti da Arco, instruments to be played with a bow.

DAL', the fame as Da. See DA.

DC, an abbreviation of Da Capo, i. e. at the head or beginning; these words or letters, are commonly met with at the end of rondeaus, or such airs or tunes as end with the first strain, and intimate that the song is to be begun again, and ended with the first part. See CAPO.

DECIMA, is one of the intervals in music, by us called a tenth; 'tis composed of an Octave and a Tierce Major or

Minor. See TERZA or THIRD.

Contrapunto ala DECIMA, is one of the species of double counterpoint; wherein the principal counterpoint may rise a tenth above, or fall as much below the subject, (by the Italians called Sogetto) which greatly varies the harmony. See COUNTERPOINT and SOGETTO.

DECIMA Terza, is the double lixth or thirteenth. See

SIXTH.

DECIMA Quarta, is the double seventh. See SEVENTH. DECIMA Quinta, is the double octave or fifteenth. See OCTAVE.

DECIMA Sexta, is the fecond tripled, or ninth doubled.

See SECOND and NINTH:

DECIMA Settima, is the third tripled, or tenth doubled.

DECIMA Octava, is the fourth tripled.

DECIMA Nona, is the fifth tripled.

DECLAMATIO, a declamation or crying out; this is used for what the Italians call Recitative. See RECI-

TATIVO. See also LARGO and ORATORIO.

DEDUTTIONE, from the Latin Deductio, is the name which Guido Aretine gave to the rise of the voice, in pronouncing the sylables Ut, re, mi, fa, fol, la, quia per has deducitur vox; as on the contrary, when the voice descended by these, la, sol, fa, mi, re, ut, he called it Reductio, quia per has reducitur vox,

DEGREES,

DEGREES, are the little intervals, whereof the concords or harmonical intervals are composed. See INTERVAL

Musical degrees are three, the greater tone, less tone, and

See TONE and SEMI-TONE.

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The primary cause of the invention of degrees or intervals less than concords, and whereby concords are divided, and as it were gradutated, Des Cartes judges to have been this, that if the voice were always to proceed by harmonical intervals, there would be too great a disproportion or inequality in the intenseness thereof, which would weary both the singer and the hearer.

Thus supposing A and C the distance of a third, if the voice were to proceed immediately, ascending from A to C, then because C being the acuter found, strikes the ear with more force than A, least that proportion should prove uneasy, another sound B is placed between them, by which, as by a step or degree, we may move upwards or downwards more eafily, and with less unequal force in raising or falling the voice.

Hence it appears, fays that author, that the degrees are only certain mediums contrived to be put betwixt the extreams of concords, for moderating their inequality, and are of use only with regard to concords; so that when the voice has moved one degree, the ear is not fatisfied 'till we come to the other, which therefore must be concord to the first found. The substance of what is here alledged comes to this; that by a fit division of the concording intervals into lesser ones, the voice will move smoothly from one note to another, and the hearer be prepared for a more exquisite relish of the perfect intervals, whose extreams are the proper notes in which the ear finds the expected rest and pleasure.

Such is the end and office of degrees or less intervals. -Now there being among us only three that experience recommends as agreeable, whose ratios are 8:9, called the greater tone; 9: 10, called the less tone; and 15: 16 called the temi-tone; by these alone, a found can be moved upwards or downwards successively from one extreme of a concord to another, and produce true Melady; and by means of these leveral voices, are also capable of the necessary variety in

passing from concord to concord.

As to the original of these degrees, they arise out of the simple concords, and are equal to their differences. Thus 8: q is the difference of a fourth and a fifth; 9: 10 is that of a leffer third and fourth, or of a fifth and greater fixth; and 15: 16 is the difference of a greater third and

fourth,

fourth, or a fifth and a leffer fixth. See THIRD, FOURTH, FIFTH and SIXTH.

For the use of degrees in the construction of the scale of

music. See SCALE and GAMUT.

DEMI, the same as semi, half. See SEMI.

DEMI-DITONE, the same with tierce minor, See TIERCE or THIRD.

DEMIQVAVER, is a note in music marked thus two of which are equal to a Quaver. See Note and QUAVER.

DEPRESSIO, the fall of the hand in beating time, and the same with the Greek word Thesis. See Arsis and Thesis.

To DESCANT, to run a division or variety upon one, two, or more given notes with an inftrument or voice.

DESCANT, or Descanto, the art of composing in seve-

ral parts. See Composition.

DESCANT, in threefold, plain, figurative, and double.

Plain DESCANT, is the ground work and foundation of all
musical compositions, consisting entirely in the orderly placing

of many concords, answering to simple counterpoint.

Figurate or florid Descant, is that part of an air of music wherein some discords are concerned, as well, though not so much, as concords. This may be termed the ornamental and rhetorical part of music, in regard, that there are introduced all the varieties of points, syncopes, diversities of measures, and whatever is capable of adorning the composition.

Descant double, is when the parts are so contrived, that the treble or any high part may be made the bass, and è contra. See HARMONY, COUNTERPOINT, and MELODY.

DESOLATA Syncope, Consonans Desolata. See

SYNCOPE.

DEUTERUS. See PROTOS.

DI, an Intalian article, which when placed before the christian name of a person, signifies of, as Di Gio. Maria Bononcini, of John Maria Bononcini; it has the same signication also before many substantives, as Salmi di Terza, psalms of tierce, or in three parts, &c.

DI seconda, di terza, di quarta, fignifies a rise or fall of a second, third, sourth, &c. And before some adverbs, it signifies of, or from, as Di sopra, from above, Di sotto, from

below, &c.

DIAFONI Suoni. See Suono.

DIAGRAM, in the antient music, was what we call the scale or gamut in the modern. See SCALE and GAMUT.

The extent of the Diagramma which was called Systema persecum, was a dis-diapason, or two octaves, in the ratio of 1:4. In that space they had eighteen chords, though these according to some, had not all different sounds. See Chord and Lyre.

To explain it, they represent to us eighteen chords or strings of any instrument, as of the Lyre, supposed to be tuned according to the proportion of any of the Genera, viz. Diatonic, Chromatic or Enharmonic. See Genus, Diatonic, Chromatic and Enharmonic.

As the Lyre was improved and had more chords added to it, so was the *Diagramma*; by such means it came from 4 to 7, then 8, then 10, then 14, and at last to 18 Chords. See Lyre.

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To each of these chords or sounds they gave a particular name, taken from it's situation in the Diagramma, or on the Lyre. Their names and orders commencing from the lowest, are as sollow: Proslambanomenos, Hypate-bypaton, Parhypate-hypaton, Lychanos Hypaton, Hypate Meson, Parhypate Meson, Lychanos Meson, Mese, Trite Synemmenon, Paranete Synemmenon, Nete Synemmenon, Paramose, Trite Diezeugmenon, Paranete Diezeugmenon, Nete Diezeugmenon, Trite Hyperbolæon, Paranete Hyperbolæon, Nete Hyperbolæon.

Guido Aretine improved this scale or Diagram very greatly, finding it of too small extent, he added five more chords or notes to it; laid them all down on a staff of five lines, and instead of the long Greek names above-mentioned, named all his notes by Gregory's seven letters, and afterwards by the syllables ut, re, mi, &c. See Note and GAMMUT.

The first and lowest note in his scale he marked γ , and called it *Gamma*; whence the whole scale became denominated *Gammut*.

DIALOGO, fignifies a piece of music for, at least, two voices, or two instruments, which answer one another; and which frequently uniting, make a trio with the thorough bass.

They are very much used by the Italians in their operas, oratorios, serenatas, &c.

DIAPASON, a musical interval, by which most authors who have wrote on the theory of music, use to express the octave of the Greeks; as they use Diapente, Diatesfaron, and Hexachord, to express fifth, fourth and sixth. See Octave.

The Diapason is the first and most perfect of the concords; if considered simply, it is but one harmonical interval, tho' if considered diatonically, by tones and semi-tones, it contains

feven

feven degrees, viz. the three greater tones, two leffer tones,

and two greater femi-tones.

The interval of a Diapason, that is, the proportion of it's grave found to it's acute, is duplicate, i. e. as 2: 1. See INTERVAL.

DIAPASON, among the musical instrument makers, is a kind of rule or scale, whereby they adjust the pipes of their Organs, and cut the holes in their Flutes, Hautboys, &c. in due proportion for performing the tones, semi-tones and concords just.

A square being divided into eight equal parallelograms, the points wherein a diagonal line intersects all these parallelograms, express all the usual intervals in music: And on this

principle it is, that the Diapason is founded.

There is a particular kind of Diapason for Trumpets; ferving as a standard or measure of the different magnitudes they must have to persorm the sour parts of music. See TRUMPET.

There is another kind for Sacbuts and Serpents, flewing how far they are to be lengthned and shortened, to raise or

fall from one tone or interval to another.

DIAPASON-DIAEX, a kind of compound concord, whereof there are two forts: the greater, which is in the proportion of 10:3; and the leffer, in that of 16:5, called a thirteenth. See Concord.

DIAPASON-DIAPENTE, a compound confe-

nance in a triple ratio, or as 2: 9. See Concord.

This interval, says Martianus Capella, consists of nine tones and a semi-tone, nineteen semi-tones, and thirty eight dieses.

The Diapason-Diapente is a symphony made when the voice proceeds from the first to the twelfth sound; the word is properly in the Greek music, what we call a twelfth.

DIAPASON-DIATESSARON, a compound

concord, founded on the proportion of 8: 3.

To this interval Martianus Capella allows eight tones, and a semi-tone, seventeen semi-tones, and thirty sour dieses.

This is when the voice proceeds from it's first to it's eleventh

found. The moderns would rather call it the eleventh.

DIAPASON-DITONE, a compound concord, whose terms are as 10:4, or 5:2.

DIAPASON-SEMI-DITONE, a compound

concord, whose terms are in the proportion of 12:5.

DIAPENTE, in the antient music, an interval, making the second of the concords, and with the Diatessaron an octave. See DIATESSARON.

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This is what in the modern music is called a fifth. See Fifth.

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The Diagente is a simple concord; yet if considered diatonically, it contains four terms, two greater tones, a less tone, and a greater semi-tone; the Diagente is the greatest part of the octave, (i. e. Diagason) harmonically divided. Is is produced when the voice passes from it's first to it's fifth sound.

There are, fays Aristides, four kinds of fifths, the first begins at Hypate Meson, and ends at Paramese, which has a semi tone for it's lowest interval; the second from Parhypate Meson to Trite Diezeugmenon, in which a semi-tone is the highest interval; the third from Lychanos Meson to Paramete Diezeugmenon, in which the semi-tone is the second interval from the last or highest sound; and the sourch from Mese to Nete Diezeugmenon, wherein the semi-tone is the second interval from it's first or gravest sound.

DIAPENTE col Ditono, is by Zarlin and many others used for what we call the seventh major. See Seventh.

DIAPENTE col Semiditono, is the seventh minor. See MAJOR and MINOR.

DIASCHISMA, is an interval in music, which contains two commas. See COMMA.

DIASTEM, a name the ancients gave a simple interval, in contradiction to a compound one, which they called a system. See System.

Musicians divide intervals into two kinds, and one of them they call a system, which is to contain at least two intervals in *Diatonic* kind of music, but in the *Enharmonic* it contains more.

The other they call Diastem, is a mere simple interval; the proper signification of the Greek word being an interval. A Diastem disters in each of the Genera, in the Enharmonic, Diesis is the least Diastem, in the Chromatic and Diatonic, the semi-tone is so called. See System and INTERVAL. DIATESSARON, in ancient music, was a concord

DIATESSARON, in ancient music, was a concord or harmonical interval composed of a greater tone, a less tone, and one greater semi-tone; it's proportion in numbers is as 4:3. See CONCORD.

By the moderns it is called a fourth. See FOURTH.

DIATONIC, an epithet given to music, as it proceeds by tones and semi-tones, both ascending and descending. See Music and Genus.

The Grecian authors divide the forts of music into Diatonic, Chromatic, and Enharmonic. See CHROMATIC and EN-HARMONIC.

DIATONIC music, according to Nichomachus and others, allows of three degrees, the greater tone, less tone, and

semi-tone. See TONE and SEMI-TONE.

Hence Diatonic music appears most natural, and of consequence the most ancient. Indeed Aristoxenus absolutely says it was the first, and that from a division of it's intervals, arose the other two. The Genus or kind that makes the character of the Diatonic music, is called Genus Diatonicum.

In the *Diatonic* music there is a tone between every two notes in the scale, except mi, fa; and as the *French* term it, fi and nt, where there is only a greater semi-tone. See

SCALE.

When this order or progression of the notes is changed by the introducing flats $\Rightarrow \Rightarrow$ or sharps # #, so that thereby it's intervals are divided into two semi-tones, either major or minor, the *Diatonic* is then changed and becomes *Chromatic*. But if this alteration is made only here and there in particular places when necessary, 'tis called the mixed *Genus*, or *Diatonico-Chromatico*, which *Genus* alone is used by the moderns.

The Diatonic Genus, fays Aristoxenus, is easily discoverable, in that therein two tones, or three at most, are found together; whereas in either of the other 'tis not so, and that it has not a semi-tone on each side of a tone; and again in that two semi-tones never follow one another therein, as is

found in the other two.

We shall here add the Diatonic Diagram or scale from Nichomachus, Euclid and Gaudentius; it's lowest sound, as well as that of the other two is Proslambanomenos, which is distant from Hypate Hypaton a tone, from thence to Parhypate Hypaton a semi-tone, thence to Lychanos Hypaton a tone, thence to Hypate Meson another tone, to Parhypate Meson a semi-tone, from thence to Lychanos Meson a tone, distinguished by the name of Diatonos, thence to Meso a tone, and thence to Paramese another tone, thence to Trite Diezeugmenon a semi-tone, thence to Paranete Diezeugmenon a tone, and a tone from thence to Nete Diezeugmenon, a semi-tone to Trite Hyperbolæon, thence to Paranete Hyperbolæon a tone, and from thence to Nete Hyperbolæon another tone.

A Diatonic octave rifing by B A and falling by B .

Beginning at G, instead of A below it.



DIATONICO Systema. See System.

DIATONICO Diatonico, according to Zarlin, is the pure and natural Diatonic genus, or when the progress of the notes is by beccare or B natural, in which not one of the sounds is in the least altered, such is the plain chant of the church.

If there be a flat b, placed after the cleff, the B, or as the French call it, the Si, is lowered a femi-tone minor, and this Zarlin calls Diatonico Molle, or by b. For transposition of the mode or tone a fourth higher, or a fifth lower than natural. See TRANSPOSITION.

DIATONICI Suoni. See Suono.

DIATONOS, is a Greek term, whereby four founds of the ancient fystem are distinguished, as Hyperbolaan Diatonos, Diezeugmenon Diatonos, Meson and Hypaton Diatonos, according to Martianus Capella, and others. See each under it's proper article.

DIEZEUGMENON, disjoint, separated, this is applied to one of the tretrachords of the ancient Greek system.

See TETRACHORD and SYSTEM.

DIEZEUGMENON, fays Aristoxenus, cannot be but where there is a tone between two tetrachords, which tone makes an immoveable found in each of the Genera.

According to *Bacchius* fenior, 'tis when there is a tone between two founds, which are called *Baripioni*. See BARI-PICNI.

DIEZEUGMENON Nete, is the note called by us E la mi.

DIEZEUGMENON Paranete, is our D la fol re.

DIEZEUGSIS. See TETRACORD, DIEZEUTIC, and DIEZEUGMENON.

DIEZEUTIC tone, in the ancient Greek music, was a tone which disjoined two fourths, one of each fide of it; and which being joined to either, made a fifth. This, in I 2

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their music, was from Mese to Paramese, (Boetius de Musica, cap. xxv. lib. 1°.) that is, from our A to B; supposing mi to stand in B sub mi, they allowed to their Diezeutic tone, which is our la mi, the proportion of 9:8, as being the unalterable difference of Diapente and Diatessaron. See DIAPENTE and DIATESSARON.

Bacchius senior, gives us two Diezeutic tones, for there is one between the tetrachord Meson and that called Diezeugmenon, and the tetrachord Synemmenon is disjoined by another

from Hyperbolæon. See TETRACHORD.

DIESIS, is a division of a tone less than a semi-tone; or an interval consisting of a less or impersect semi-tone, i. c. the placing semi-tones where there ought to be tones, or tones where there ought to be only semi-tones.

DIESIS, is the smallest and softest change or inflexion of the voice imaginable; it is called a feint, and expressed thus X.

by a St Andrew's cross, or Saltier.

Aristotle calls Deises the elements of the voice, as letters are those of discourse; indeed Aristotle's Dieses, it appears, were different from ours, and we find Vitruvius and all the Greek authors expressly make Dieses a quarter of a tone. But the Pythagoreans, who were held the inventors of the name Dieses, did not make it so small; they only divided the tone into two unequal parts, and they called the lesser Dieses, which we call a lesser semi-tone, and the greater, which we call the greater semi-tone, they called Apotome. See Semi-

But in after times, when the tone came to be divided into three and four parts, the name Diesis was retained to them all; and hence those different accounts we meet withal in au-

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Dieses are divided into three kinds; the lesser enharmonical Dieses or simple Dieses, marked by a single cross, raises the note following two commas, or about a quarter of a tone; and is, say Aristoxenus and Aristides, the least interval that is sung; and again they say, that never more than two are found together in whatsoever genus, nor are those two of the same kind. The chromatic or double Dieses, denoted by a double cross, raises the note following by a lesser semi-tone, or four commas, which is the common Dieses. The greater enharmonical Dieses denoted by a triple cross, raises the sollowing note six or seven commas, or about three quarters of a tone. Aristoxenus says, that the chromatic Dieses exceeds the enharmonic by a twelfth part of a tone, and Euclid, that

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that 'tis DIFFERENTIA. See HARBITUDO.

DIMINISHED Interval, is a defective interval, or an interval that is short of it's just quantity, by a lesser semi-

tone, &c. See INTERVAL and SEMI-TONE.

DIMINUTION, is when there are feveral words which are to make tones, and feveral quick motions in a cadence, feveral quavers, femi-quavers, &c. corresponding to a crotchet or minim, and as when a femi-breve is divided into two minims, four crotchets, &c. of this there are many kinds, if done in conjoint degrees, 'tis called Trilli, Tremolli, Groppi, Circoli mezzi, Tirate, Ribattute di gola, &c. and if in disjoint, 'tis said to be done per Salto. See each under it's proper article.

DIMINUTIO, fignifies diminished, as a diminished or rather a divided cadence, interval, counterpoint, &c. all intervals wanting a semi-tone minor of their sull quantity, are called diminished intervals, as also imperfect. When a sharp is placed in a lower part, or a flat in a higher, the interval

from that may be called diminished.

D'INGANNO. See Inganno.

DIRITTA, Contrapunto alla Diritta, according to Angelo Berardi, is when one is obliged to raise or fall the voice by the same degrees, i.e. by an equal number ascending or descending, without making a leap, even of the interval of a third. This is properly as much as to say, in conjoint degrees. See SALTO, GRADO and THIRD.

DISCORD, the relation of two founds, which are always and of themselves disagreeable, whether applied in

fuccession or consonance. See Sound.

If two founds are in such a relation of tune, i. e. have such a difference of tune, as that being sounded together, they make a mixture or compound sound, which the ear receives with displeasure, it is called a Discord; on the contrary, where it receives it with pleasure, it is called a concord: And whatever two sounds make an agreeable or disagreable compound, they will have the same effect respectively, if they be applied in succession. See Tune and Concord.

As concords are denomitated harmonical intervals, fo may Discords be named unharmonious ones. See INTERVAL.

DISCORDS

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that 'tis DIFFERENTIA. See HARBITUDO.

DIMINISHED Interval, is a defective interval, or an interval that is short of it's just quantity, by a lesser semi-

tone, &c. See INTERVAL and SEMI-TONE.

DIMINUTION, is when there are feveral words which are to make tones, and feveral quick motions in a cadence, feveral quavers, femi-quavers, &c. corresponding to a crotchet or minim, and as when a femi-breve is divided into two minims, four crotchets, &c. of this there are many kinds, if done in conjoint degrees, 'tis called Trilli, Tremolli, Groppi, Circoli mezzi, Tirate, Ribattute di gola, &c. and if in disjoint, 'tis faid to be done per Salto. See each under it's proper article.

DIMINUTIO, fignifies diminished, as a diminished or rather a divided cadence, interval, counterpoint, &c. all intervals wanting a semi-tone minor of their full quantity, are called diminished intervals, as also imperfect. When a sharp is placed in a lower part, or a flat in a higher, the interval

from that may be called diminished.

D'INGANNO. See INGANNO.

DIRITTA, Contrapunto alla Diritta, according to Angelo Berardi, is when one is obliged to raise or fall the voice by the same degrees, i.e. by an equal number ascending or descending, without making a leap, even of the interval of a third. This is properly as much as to say, in conjoint degrees. See SALTO, GRADO and THIRD.

DISCORD, the relation of two founds, which are always and of themselves disagreeable, whether applied in

fuccession or consonance. See Sound.

If two founds are in fuch a relation of tune, i. e. have fuch a difference of tune, as that being founded together, they make a mixture or compound found, which the ear receives with displeasure, it is called a Discord; on the contrary, where it receives it with pleasure, it is called a concord: And whatever two founds make an agreeable or disagreable compound, they will have the same effect respectively, if they be applied in succession. See Tune and Concord.

As concords are denomitated harmonical intervals, so may Discords be named unharmonious ones. See INTERVAL.

Discords

Discords are diffinguished into concinnous and inconcinnous intervals. The concinnous, called by the ancients *Emmeli*, are such as are apt or fit for music, next to, and in combination with concords.

These are relations, which in themselves, are neither very agreeable nor disagreeable; and have only a good effect in music, by their opposition as they heighten, and illustrate the more natural and essential principles of the pleasure we seek for; as by their mixture and combination with them, they produce a variety necessary to our being better pleased.

Notwithstanding this, they are still called Discords; as the bitterness of some things may help to set off the sweetness of

others, and still be bitter.

The inconcinnous Discords, by the ancients called Ecmeli, are such as never are chose in music, as having too great a harshness in them, tho' even the greatest Discord is not with-

out it's use. See Concinnous, &c.

The effential principles of harmony, harmonical intervals, or concords, are but few, in number only eight; the indefinite numbers of other ratios, are all Discords. Hence Mr Malcolm shews the necessity of taking some of the less untoward of these Discords, unto the system of music.

In order to this, he confiders the effect of having none but

harmonical intervals therein.

First, With respect to a single voice, if that should move always from one degree to another, so as every note or sound to the next, were in the ratio of some concord, the variety, which is the life of music, would soon be exhausted; for to move by no other than harmonical intervals, would not only want variety, and so weary us with a tedious repetition of the same things, but the very perfection of such relation of sounds would cloy the ear, in the same manner as sweet and luscious things do the taste; which, for that reason, are artfully seasoned with the mixture of sower and bitter.

Secondly, With respect to music in parts, i. e. where two or more voices join in consonance, the general rule is, That the successive sounds of each be so ordered, that the several

voices shall be all concords.

Now there ought to be a variety in the choice of those fuccessive concords, and also in the method of their succession; all which depends on the movement of the single parts. So that if they could only move in an agreeable manner by harmonical distances, there are but few different ways wherein they could move from concord to concord; and hereby we should loose much of the ravishment of sounds in consonance. And to this part then, the thing demanded is a variety

variety of ways, whereby each fingle voice, or more in confonance, may move agreeably in the successive sounds, so as to pass from concord to concord, and meet in every note in the same or a different concord, from what they stood in at the last note.

In what cases and for what reasons Discords are allowed, the rules of composition must teach; but only joining these two considerations, &c. we find how imperfect music would be, without any other intervals than concords. See Composition.

Besides the concinnous Discords used designedly in music, there are several other discord relations, which happen unavoidably in a kind of accidental and indirect manner. Thus in the succession of several notes there are to be confidered, not only the relations of those which succeed others immediately, but also of those, betwixt which others inter-Now the immediate succession may be conducted for as to produce melody; and yet among the diffant notes, there may be very gross Discords, that would not be tollerable mediate fuccession, and far less in consonance. Thus taking away one species, e. g. that with the greater third, and marking the degrees between each term and the next; and tho' the progression be melodious, as the terms refer to one common fundamental, yet there are several Discords among the mutual relations of the terms, e. g. from the fourth to the seventh greater, is 32:45; and from the second greater to the fixth greater, is 27:40; and from the second greater to the fourth, is 27: 32, all Discords.

The species of counterpoint, wherein there is a mixture of Discords, is called figurative counterpoint; of which there are two kinds: That wherein the Discords are introduced occasionally, to serve only as transitions from concord to concord; and that wherein the Discord bears a chief part of the harmony. See FIGURATIVE COUNTERPOINT.

Upon the unaccented part of the measure, Discords may transfently pass without any great offence to the ear: This is called supposition, by reason the transfent Discord supposes a concord immediately following it. See Supposition.

The harmony of Discords, is that wherein the Discords are made use of as the solid and substantial part of the harmony. For by a proper interposition of a Discord, the succeeding concords receive an additional lustre. Thus the Discords are in music, what the strong shades are in painting. See HARMONY.

The Discords are the fifth when joined with the fixth, the fourth with the fifth, the ninth of it's own nature is a Discord, so is the seventh.

The

The Difcords are introduced into harmony with due preparations, and must be succeeded by concords; which is the resolution of Discords. The Discord is prepared by substituting it first in the harmony in quality of a concord; i. e. the same note which becomes a Discord, is first a concord to the bass note immediately proceeding that to which it is a Discord.

The Discord is resolved by being immediately succeeded by a concord, descending from it only by the distance of a greater

or leffer fecond.

DISCRETO, the fameas CON DISCRETIONE, which see. DISDIAPASON, or rather Bif-diapason, a compound concord, described by Fa. Parran as quadruple of 4: 1, or 8: 2. See CONCORD.

The Disdiapson is produced when the voice goes diatonically from it's first to it's fifteenth sound, and may be called a

fifteenth.

The voice ordinarily does not go farther than from it's first sound to the Disdiapason, i. e. it does not go beyond the compound or double octave, for the Disdiapason is an octave doubled. See Octave.

The voice may fometimes rife feveral degrees above the Disdiapason, but the effort or struggle disfigures it, and makes

it false.

The antient scale or diagramma, only extended to a Difdiapason. Martianus Capella gives the Disdiapason the proportion of 12: 3, and adds, that it contains ten tones and four semi-tones, i. e. 24 semi-tones, and 48 dieses. See DIAGRAM.

DISDIAPASON-diapente, a concord in a sextuple ratio of

1:6.

DISDIAPASON-semi-diapente, a compound concord, in the proportion of 16:3.

DISDIAPASON-ditone, a compound consonance, in the

proportion of 10:2.

DISDIAPASON-semi-ditone, a compound concord, in the

proportion of 24:5.

DISSOLUTIO, according to Bacchius senior, is when a sound in the enharmonic genus is lowered three dieses, for thereby that genus is disolved, and the music, or that interval at least, is chromatic; Spondeasmus, says Aristides, is the contrary.

DISSONANCE, or Discord, a false consonance or

concord. See Concord and Discord.

A Dissonance, is properly the result of the mixture or meeting of two sounds, which are disagreeable to the

ear, such are the ditones, tritones, false fifths, redundant fourths, sevenths, &c. Diffonances are used in music, and have a good effect, though it be only by accident. See DISCORD.

DISSONANS Syncope. See SYNCOPE.

DISSONANTE, fignifies in general, all disagreeable intervals. This epithet is particularly given to the second, seventh, ninth, and sometimes the fourth, with their double or replies, &c. as also to all redundant and desective intervals, as the tritone, false fifth, &c.

DISTENDENTE Maniera. See MUTATION,

MANNER and Usus.

DITONE or Ditonum, an interval, comprehending two

tones. See INTERVAL and TONE.

The proportion of the founds that form the Ditone, is 4:5; and that of the semi-ditone, is 5:6. F. Parran makes the Ditone the fourth kind of simple concord, as comprehending two tones, according to Aristides, a greater and less. Others make it the first discord; dividing the Ditone into eighteen equal parts or commas, the nine on the acute side make the greater tone, as afferted by Salmon de Caux.

Aristides again says, various are the divisions of the Ditone, in the enharmonic it contains eight dieses, in the diatonic, four semi-tones, and in the chromatic, it is divided into thirds of a tone, and has six thereof for it's complement.

The word is formed of the Greek, Dis and Tonos, twice

and tone.

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ne ir DITONO con-diapente, or Semi-Ditono con diapente. See SEVENTH, MAJOR and MINOR.

DITONUM, ad-ditonum supra. See EPI or HYPER.

Ad ditonum infra. See Hypo.

DITONUS cum Diapente, is the greater seventh. See SEVENTH.

DIVISARUM Tetrachordon ultima, extenta, and tertia, See System.

DIVISI, fignifies, divided into two or more parts.

DIVISION, the dividing the interval of an octave into a number of less intervals. See INTERVAL, OCTAVE, and SYSTEM.

The fourth and fifth each of them divide the octave perfectly, though differently; when the fifth is below, and serves as a bass to the fourth, the division is called harmonical; when the fourth is below, 'tis called arithmetical. See SCALE and HARMONICAL.

To run a Division, is to play or sing after the manner above-mentioned, i. e. to divide the intervals of an octave, sifth, sourth, &c. into as many parts, and as agreeably as possible, which depends entirely upon taste and fancy.

DIVITO, denotes a grave ferious manner of playing,

fit to inspire divotion.

D, LA, SOL, RE, is the fifth note of the septenaries or combination in the gamut; only re is wanting in the upper-

most, and la in the lowermost.

DO, is a syllable used by the *Italians* instead of ut, by reason they think it more musical and resonant than ut, because of the close pronounciation of the letter U in their language.

DODECUPLA di Crome, is a name by which the Italians call the triple $\frac{12}{8}$, in which twelve notes are requi-

red, instead of four in common time.

DODECUPLA di Semi Crome, with them is our triple $\frac{12}{16}$, wherein there are twelve notes instead of fixteen, in a bar of duple time. See TRIPLE and TIME.

DOI, fignifies two.

DOMINANT of a mode, that found which makes a perfect fifth to the final, in authentic modes; and a third to the final, or fixth to the lowest chord of a plagal mode. See MODE and FINAL.

DOMINICALI Salmi, in the Romish church, are

certain pfalms, fung in the vespers of Sunday evening.

DOLCE, signifies soft, sweet, and agreeable; as con Dolce maniera, after a sweet and agreeable manner. See Con.

DOPPIO, signifies double, as Basso Doppio, signifies the

double or counter bass.

DORIC Mode, is the first of the authentic modes of the ancients; it's character is to be severe, tempered with gravity and joy; and is proper upon religious occasions, as also to be used in war. It begins D, la, sol, re. See Mode.

Plate admires the music of the Doric mode, and judges it proper to preserve good manners, as being masculine, and on

this account, allows of it in his commonwealth.

The ancients had likewise their sub-doric or bypodoric mode, which was one of the plagal modes. It's character was to be very grave and solemn. It began with re, a fourth lower than the Doric. See Mode.

DOSDUPLA di Chrome. See DODECUPLA.

DOUCED, a musical instrument, with strings of wire, commonly called a Dulcimer. See DULCIMER.

DRAMATIC. See Music, Enharmonic, &c.

DRUM, a military musical instrument, of the pulsatile kind, used principally among the foot, to call the soldiers to-

gether, to direct their march, attack, retreat, &c.

The body of the Drum is of very thin oak, bent into a cylinder, and covered with parchment, which is strained or braced more or less, according to the height or depth of the tone required, by strings, and struck with sticks.

The height of the Drum is equal to it's breadth, which does not exceed two foot and a half, by reason no skins can

be had to cover bigger.

There are also *Drums* whose bodies are of brass, commonly called Tymbals or Kettle *Drums*, used among the horse. To be played on, they are hung or layed a-cross the shoulders of the horse, before the drummer, who with a variety of odd gestures, beats them with two little iron bars with balls at the end; their sound is softer and more agreeable than that of the other. And these are often used in operas, oratorios, tragedies and concerts.

There are divers beats of Drum, as the march, double

march, assemblée, charge, retreat, chamade, &c.

DUCTILIS Tuba. See SACBUT, TROMBONE,

and Posaune, &c.

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DUCTUS, says Aristides, is when we sound several notes in conjoint degrees, and is either called Ductus rectus, when we raise the voice or sound; or Ductus revertens, when we fall; or Ductus circumcurrens, when we rise in the order of Beccare, and fall with that of Bmol, or è contra.

DUE, or Dei. See Do 1.

DUETTI, a diminutive of Duo, a little air or fong in two parts, or for two voices.

DULCE Suono. See DULCINO.

DULCIMER, a musical instrument, with wire strings in a triangular form, strung with about sifty strings, cast over a bridge at each end, and the acuter gradually the shorter, the shortest about eighteen inches, and the longest about thirty six; struck with little iron rods: the bass strings are doubled, and it's sound is not disagreeable: To be played on, 'tis laid on a table before the performer, who with the little iron rod in each hand, strikes the strings. This instrument is not much used except among puppet-shews.

DULCINO, a wind instrument, otherwise called Quart fagotto, is the tenor to the Hautboy, and is no more

than a baffoon.

DUO, a fong or composition to be performed in two parts only; one sung, the other played on any instrument, or by two voices. 'Tis also called Duo, when two voices

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fing different parts, accompanied with a third, which is a thorough bass. Unifons and octaves are rarely used in Duos, except at the beginning and the end.

DUODECIMA, is the twelfth, or the fifth doubled.

See FIFTH.

DUPLA, double, as proportione Dupla, the proportion of 1:2, 2:4, or 4:8, &c. two chords or strings, that are

in this proportion, produce the octave. See OCTAVE.

DUPLA Sesqui Quarta, or Nonupla di semi minime, is a species of triple, wherein nine notes are required in a bar, whereof sour make a measure in common time, 'tis marked \(^9_4\). See Triple.

DURALE, or Duro, hard, harsh, or more properly sharp. This name is given to B natural, by reason it's sound is sharp, when compared with B mol, or slat. See FLAT, SHARP, and B QUADRO.

DUX, in fugues is the first voice or instrument that begins, and serves as a guide to the other parts, which are called comes, or followers. See Conseguente.

E On the keys of an Organ or Harpsichord, denotes the note or found E la mi.

EAR denotes a kind of internal fense whereby we perceive and judge of harmony and musical founds. See Music.

In music we seem universally to acknowlede something like a distinct sense from the external one of hearing, and call it a good Ear.

ECCHO, is often used instead of Piano. See PIANO.

ECCHOMETRE, a kind of scale or rule with several lines thereon, serving to measure the duration and length of sounds, and so find their intervals and ratios.

The word is formed of the Greek nx , found, and peres,

measure.

ECCLESIASTICO ftylo, is music composed in the manner of an anthem, Te deum, and such like church music. See STYLE.

ECCHUS, is a repetition of the voice or found, by it's being reflected by the air; it is often imitated in music, and pieces composed to that end are called *Ecchos*. See Music and Sound.

Sometimes the word *Ecchus* stands for *Piano*, to signify that the instrument or voice is to play or sing after a soft and sweet manner. Organs and Harpsichords have what they call *Eccho-stop*. See ORGAN, PIANO and HARPSICHORD.

EMELI Suoni. See Suono.

E or Ed, fignifies and, as Allegro ed andante, brisk and diflinctly.

ELEVATIO, the same as Arsis, See ARSIS or PER.
This word also fignifies motetts for one, two, three, four or ore parts, ordinarily alone, sometimes with Violins or

more parts, ordinarily alone, fometimes with Violins or Flutes, and very often a thorough bass, which are sung in a certain office in the Romish Church, when the body of our Saviour is lifted up, whence the name.

EMIOLIA. See HEMIOLIA. EMMELI Suoni. See SUONO.

EMPHYSOOMENA.

EMPNEOUSTA. See STROMENTO. ENCHORDA.

ENHARMONICAL, of, or pertaining to, harmony. ENHARMONIC Genus, is faid to have been thus

called from it's fuperior excellence, though wherein it con-

fifted, fays Mr Malcolm, we have not been able to find out. It was allowed by all to be so very difficult that few could ever

practice it.

The several Genera are divided into diastems, upon which their differences depend, those of the Enharmonic, according to Euclid, are two dieses and the ditonus; those of the Chromatic, hemitonium, and triemitonium; and in the Diatonic, the hemitonium or limma, and the two tones.

But under the general names which distinguish the Genera, there are several intervals and ratios, which constitute the Chroai or Colores Generum, or species of the Enharmonic, Diatonic and Chromatic. See CHROMATIC and DIATONIC.

Mr Broffard better defines the word, and fays, 'tis a species of music, the modulation whereof proceeds by intervals less than semitones, i. e. quarters of tones, and that it has two

dieses or signs of raising the voice. See DIESIS.

This Genus, fays that author, was greatly used in the Greek music, especially in dramatic performances. But as those almost insensible elevations and fallings of the voice are too difficult, and as they sometimes make the concords false, it has been laid aside and even lost, though some great authors have made many attempts to recover it. See System and Genus.

ENHARMONIC is also a particular manner of tuning the voice, and disposing the intervals with such art, that the melody becomes more moving, abounding very much in dieses or semitones.

The progression of the Enharmonic Genus we shall here give the reader from Euclid's Introduct. Harmonica.

I Proflambanomenos.

2 Hypate Hypaton.

3 Parhypate Hypaton.

4 Lychanos Hypaton +enharmonios

5 Hypate Meson. 6 Parhypate Meson.

7 Lychanos Meson +enharmonios.

8 Mefe.

9 Trite Synemmenon.

- 10 Paranete Synemmenon +enharmonios.
- II Nete Synemmenon.

12 Paramofe.

13 Trite Diezeugmenon.

- 14 Paranete Diezeugmenon +enbarmonios.
- 15 Nete Diezeugmenon. 16 Trite Hyperbolæon.

17 Parenete

17 Paranete Hyperbolæon + enharmonios. 18 Nete Hyperbolæon.

An Enharmonic Fourth ascending, and è contra.



ENHARMONIC Diefis, is the difference between the greater and lesser semitone. See SEMITONE.

ENTATA. See STROMENTO.

EOLIC or EOLIAN mode, one of the modes of the ancients, the final whereof was A mi la, and the dominant E si mi, and it's mediant, C sol ut.

The Eolic mode was fittest for lyric verses, as having a particular sweetness mixed with gravity. See Tuono.

The Sub or Hypo Eolic, had the same effects with the Eolic, and was the E fi mi, a fourth lower than it's authentic or natural mode.

EPI, is a Greek preposition, as is Hyper, both which fignify fupra, below; we find one or other of those words often added to the Greek names of some of the intervals of music, as

EPI or Hyper- 2 Diatessaron,
Diapente,
Diapason,
Ditonum, &c.

When we meet with them thus in conjunction they intimate that the voice that is to follow the dux or guide, is to take it's pitch a fourth, fifth, eighth, &c. below it, the third voice is to observe the same with regard to the second, and the fourth to the third, and so on through the parts.

EPISYNAPHE, fays Bacchius senior, is when three tetrachords or fourths are sung one after another, without any disjunction, as when we proceed from the Hypaton tetrachord to Meson, and thence to Synemmenon, between which there is

no Diezeutic tone. See DIEZEUTIC.

EPITRITO, the same as Sesqui terza, a certain mathematical proportion, whereby they measure two unequal numbers, in which the greater contains the less twice, and a third part of the less remains, as 4 contains 3 once, and unity over, which is one third of three, or the less numbers

number; and 8 contains 6 once and 2 over, which is still

one third of fix. See PROPORTION.

EPOGDOO, or Sesqui octave, is a proportion of two numbers, wherein the greater contains the less once and an eighth part of the less remains, as 9:8, 18:16, See Proportion, Octave and Sesqui.

EPTACHORDO, the same as seventh. See

SEVENTH, and HEPTACHORD.

EPTACHORDO Majore, the greater seventh. See SEVENTH.

EPTACHORDO Minore, the leffer seventh. See SEVENTH

EQUI Suoni. See Suono.

ESSACHORDO Maggior and Minore, the greater and leffer fixth. See SIXTH and HEXACHORD.

ETTACHORDO. See HEPTACHORD.

EVOVÆ. See Tuono.

EUTHIA, according to Martianus Capella, is a Greek term of the same signification of the Latin Dustus restus, and the Italian Conducimento retto. See Ductus and Conduction CIMENTO.

EXCELLENS. See Hyperbol EON.

EXCELLENTIUM Tetrachordon, Ultima, Extenta, Tertia. See System and Hyperbol Eon.

EXCLUSUS Sonus. See TRIAS HARMONICA.

EXTEMPORANEUM Contrapuntum. See Counterpoint.

EXTENTUS, Extenta. See PARANETE and LY-CHANOS. Four chords of the ancient Greek system bear these names, viz. Paranete Diezeugmenon, and Paranete Synemmenon, Lychanos Hypaton, and Lychanos Meson. See System.

Divisarum EXTENTA. See PARANETE DIEZEUG-

MENON and SYSTEM.

Mediarum Extenta. See Lychanos Meson and Genus.

Principalium EXTENTA. See LYCHANOS HYPATON, and SYSTEM,

EXTENTIO. See Usus.

EXUPERANS. See Hyperbol zon.

P Often stands for the word Forte. See FORTE.

F. or Fa, is the bass cleff placed at the beginning of the lines of a piece of music, generally on the fourth line upwards; also on the third, and on any other at pleasure. See Cleff.

Indeed the characters wherewith the F, and C cleffs are marked, bear no refemblance to those letters: Mr Malcolm thinks it would be well if we used the letters themselves, but custom has carried it otherwise: The ordinary character of the F cleff is D: which Kelper takes a world of pains to deduce by corruption from the F itself. See CHARACTER.

F A is one of the fyllables invented by Guido Aretine, to mark the fourth found of the modern scale of music, rising

thus, ut, re, mi, fa. See Note and GAMUT.

We distinguish two Fa's in the modern scale, B fa si by b mol or b, and f ut fa by beccare . See B QUADRO,

The founds which we express by this letter or syllable were in the Grecian system the Parhypate Meson, and it's octave

higher Trite Hyperbolæon. See SYSTEM.

F A finto, or a feign'd F, is a feint upon that note: this is the case of every note that has this mark before it \Rightarrow , but the mi and fi, or our E and B more particularly, and is what we commonly call the flat of any note. See FLAT.

FAC, is and abbreviation of Facciata. See CARTA. FACCIATA, is used as Pagina, or shortned Pag.

and fignifies the fame thing.

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FAGOTTINO, is a fingle Curtail, a musical inftrument fomething like the Bassoon. See Bassoon.

FAGOTTO, is the double Curtail, or in reality a

Bassoon, as big again as the former.

F F, stands for Forte Forte, and denotes to play strong and

loud. See FORTE and FORTISSIMO.

FANTASIA, Fancy, is a fort of composition wherein the composer tyes himself to no particular time, but ranges according as his fancy leads, amidst various movements, different airs, &c. this is otherwise called the capricious style; before somatas were used there were many of this kind, some of which remain even now. See CAPRICIO.

FALSA Diminuta, or Defettiva quinta, a false or defec-

tive fifth. See DIAPENTE or FIFTH.

FALSO Bordone, is said of the burden or ground base of a song, when it is not exact to the rules of harmony, i. e. when the notes move all the same way, as is often the case in

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the Psalms and other parts of divine office. But the Italians give this name to a certain harmony produced by the accompanyments of feveral fixths following one another, which make feveral fourths between two higher parts, because the third part is obliged to make tierces with the bass.



Some are of opinion that the B of the middle part marked A should be preceded by a B mol, to avoid the false relation of a Tritone with the Fa in the bass marked B; others give themselves no trouble about that, but pretend that on many occasions this dissonance has it's beauty; we find examples of both these methods in eminent authors. But these things, says Brossard, depend more upon fancy than any just rules.

FEINT or Semitone, the fame with what is called Diesis.

See DIESIS.

FAVORITO, as Choro Favorito, is a chorus in which are employed the best voices and instruments to sing the recitativos, play the ritornellos, &c. this is otherwise called the little chorus, or choro recitante. See RECITANTE. FERIO, I beat, I strike. See SYNCOPE.

FERMO. See CANTO FERMO. See also CHANT.

FIATO. See VOLTA.

FIFARO, a fort of little pipe, like a Flageolet, 'tis afually accompanied by a little Drum, and these thus joined, are called the Pipe and Tabour. See TABOUR and DRUM.

FIFE, a fort of wind music, being a small pipe.

FISTULA.

FIFTH, one of the harmonical intervals or concords. See INTERVAL. The Fifth is the second in order of the concords, the ratios of the chords that afford it, are as 3:2. See CHORD and CONCORD.

It is called Fifth, as containing five terms or founds between it's extremes, and four degrees, so that in the natural scale of music, it comes in the fifth place or order, from the fundamental. See SCALE.

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The ancients call this interval Diapente, and the Italians at present, Quinta. See DIAPENTE and QUINTA.

The imperfect and defective FIFTH, called by the ancients Semi-Diapente, is less than the Fifth by a lesser semi-

tone. See Tone and SEMITONE.

FIGURA, in general, means all forts of figures made use of in music, whether for notes or pauses, originally they were only dots, set up and down the spaces, and they were all of equal length, as they are still in the Gregorian of plain chant. See CHANT.

'Twas about the year 1330 or 1333, that Jean de Muris invented notes, of different length, and they are what are

properly meant by the Italian word Figura.

This word means also that variety of figures or notes of different value in a song, which are the chief ornaments thereof, as trillos, quavers, & a. whence it is called figurate counterpoint.

FIGURATE Descant. See DESCANT.

FIGURATE Counterpoint, is that wherein there is a mixture of discords along with concords. See COUNTER-

on the accented part of the measure, i. e. nothing but concords are allowed in the beginning and the middle, or the beginning of the first half of the bar, and the beginning of the latter half thereof in common time; and the beginning or first of three notes in triple time; i. e. not in conjoint degrees, but by resolution and preparation, discords are absolutely necessary. But upon the unaccented parts this is not so necessary, for discords may there transiently pass without much offence. See Accent.

This the French call fupposition, because the transient discords suppose a concord immediately following. See Sup-

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Where discords are used as the solid and substantial parts of the harmony, the counterpoint is properly called the harmony of discords. See HARMONY and DISCORD. Mute FIGURE, the same as the rest or pause. See

PAUSE and REST.

FILUM, is by the Italians called Virgula, and by us the tail of a note, as a minim is a semi-breve with a tail to it, O, D. See VIRGULA and NOTE.

FIN, FINALE, or Final, the end or last note of a piece of music. But it more particularly means the close or last L 2 note

note of a tone or mode, by which it is distinguished from all others.

If in the bass, the Final happens to fall on a fifth descending, and a fourth rising, the mode is authentic or perfect: But if on the contrary, it fall on a fourth descending, and the fifth rising, the mode is said to be plagal or impersect. See Mode, Tone and Dominant.

The Final always requires a third greater, when 'tis the last note of the piece. But if it be in the middle of a piece, and the mode be minor, it must rather have a third minor

than major. See Major and Minor.

FINALIS PAUSA, or Pausa generalis. See PAUSE and POINT.

FINIS, the end. See FIN.

FINITO, a cannon or fugue, is faid to be Finito, when 'tis not perpetual; but when at fome certain place, all the parts join or unite, after having followed one another for fome time. See CANONE.

right final, another note, either higher or lower, is taken, or perhaps a pause brought in. See Ingannoand Sfuggita.

FIORITTO is a species of diminution, which is com-

monly made at the ending of a cadence.



Canto FIORITTO, is a fong full of diminutions, graces, passages, &c. and is indeed figurate counterpoint. See COUNTERPOINT.

FIORITA Cadenza, is a cadence whose last note but one is divided into many of less value. See CADENCE.

FISTULA, an inftrument of the wind kind, refem-

bling our Flute or Flageolet. See FLUTE.

The principal wind instruments of the ancients were the Tibia and Fistula; though how they were constituted, or wherein they differed, or how they were played on, does not appear.

FLAGEOLET, or Flajeolet, is a kind of little Flute, or a musical instrument of the wind kind, used chiefly by

the shepherds and country people. See FLUTE:

'Tis

'Tis usually made of box, or other hard wood, formetimes of ivory, it has fix holes, besides that at the bottom, the mouth piece, and that behind the neck.

FLATS, a kind of additional note, as b, contrived together with sharps, to remedy the defects of musical instruments, whereon temperament is required. See SHARP.

The natural scale of music being limited to fixed sounds, and adjusted to an instrument, the instrument will be sound desective in many points; and particularly, in that we can only proceed from any note by one particular order of degrees; that for this reason, we cannot find any interval required, from any note upwards or downwards, and that a song may be so contrived, as that if it be begun by any particular note or letter, all the intervals or other notes, shall be justly sound on the instrument, or in the fixed series, yet were the song begun with any other note, we could not proceed. See SCALE.

To remove or supply this defect, musicians have recourse to a scale proceeding by twelve degrees, that is thirteen notes to an octave, including the extreams, which makes the instrument so perfect, that there is but little reason to complain.

This therefore is the present system or scale for instruments that have their sounds fixed, viz. betwixt the extreams of every tone of the natural scale, is put a sound or note, which divides it into two unequal parts, called semi-tones, and the whole may be called the semi-tonic scale, containing twelve semi-tones betwixt thirteen notes, in the compass of an octave. See Semitone and Semitonic Scale.

Now to preserve the diatonic series distinct, these inserted notes either take the name of the natural note next below, with this character, # called a sharp, or the name of the natural note next above it, with this mark b, called a flat. Thus D b, or D flat, signifies a semi-tone below D natural, and it is indifferent in the main, whether the inserted note be accounted as flat or sharp.

This semitonic series or scale, is very exactly represented by the keys of the Organ, &c. the lowermost range of keys being the natural or diatonic notes, and those behind the artificial ones, or the flats and sharps.

FLAUTINO, a small Flute or Flajeolet. See FLA-GEOLET.

FLAUTO, a Flute. See FLUTE.

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FLAUTO Transverse, a German Flute. See GERMAN FLUTE.

FLORID Descant and Counterpoint. See DESCANT and COUNTERPOINT.

FLUTE,

FLUTE, an instrument of music, the simplest of all those of the wind kind. See Music.

It is played on by blowing in it with the mouth, and the tones or notes are changed by stopping and opening the holes,

disposed for that purpose, along it's side.

The Latins call it Fistula, or Tibia, a pipe; from the former of which, fome derive the word Flute; tho' Borel will have it derived from Flutta a Lamprey, thus called a Fluitando in Fluviis, in regard, the Flute is long like a Lamprey, and hath holes along it like that fish.

The ancient Fiftulæ or Flutes, were made of reeds, afterwards of wood, and at last of metal, but how they were blown, whether as our Flutes, or as Hautboys, does not ap-

pear. See HAUTBOY.

'Tis plain some had holes, which at first were but sew, but afterwards increased to a great number: and some had none; some were single pipes, and some a combination of many, particularly Pans Syringa, which consisted of seven reeds bound together sideways; they had no holes along them, each giving a distinct sound, in all seven different sounds, but at what intervals is not known; perhaps they were the notes of the natural diatonic scale. See Fistula and Diatonic.

German FLUTE, is an instrument entirely different from the common Flute; 'tis not like that put into the mouth to be played, but the end is stopt with a tampion or plug, and the lower lip is applied to a hole about two inches and a half, or three inches distant from the end, and about half an inch distant from that hole. 'Tis usually a foot and a half long, rather bigger at the upper end than the lower, and perforated with holes, besides that for the mouth, the lowest of which is stopt, and opened by the little finger's pressing on a brass or sometimes a silver key, like those in Hautboys, Bassoons, &c. It's sound is exceeding sweet and agreeable, and it serves as a treble in a concert.

The bass is double or quadruple it's length and bigness, but those instruments are partly disused or converted into Bassoons.

FLUTE d'Allemand, a German Flute, See FLUTE.

FLUTE a Bec, a common Flute. See FLUTE.

FOLLIA, a particular fort of air, called for the generality Fardinal's ground.

FORLANA, is a fort of dance in great use among

the Venetians. See SALTARELLA.

FORTE, directs to play strong and loud.

FORTE Forte, or F. F. fignify a degree louder or stronger than Forte. See FORTE.

FORT MENT, the same with FORTE, which see.

Piu FORTE, the same as Forte Forte.

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FORTISSIMO, very strong, is sometimes also denoted by f, f, f, and intimates that you play or sing very loud or strong, to express some passion, &c.

FOURTH, one of the harmonical intervals called con-

cords. See INTERVAL and CONCORD.

The Fourth confifts in the mixture of two founds in the ratio of 4:3, that is of two founds produced by two chords, whose lengths, &c. are in that proportion. See Chord.

It is called *Fourth*, because containing four sounds or terms between it's extreams, and three intervals; or as being the *Fourth* in order of the natural or diatonic scale from the fundamental.

The ancients called it *Diatessaron*, and speak of it as the principal concord, on whose divisions all the rest depend, which are found by addition to, or substraction from this interval, but the moderns do not allow it so many perfections. See DIATESSARON.

The superfluous FOURTH is a discord, confishing of two tones major and one minor, called also tritone, composed of ratios of 27: 20. See DISCORD and PROPORTION.

Aristonenus distinguishes three kinds of Fourths, the first says he, had a diesis enharmonica for it's first interval; the second had a diesis chromatica, on each side a ditonus; and the last had a diesis enharmonica on each side of a ditone. And Euclid and Bacchius senior, add, that the first sound of one kind of tetrachord or Fourth, was one of those called Baripicni, as from Hypate Hypaton, to Hypate Meson; the other had one of those called Mesopicni, as from Parhypate Hypaton, to Parhypate Meson; the last began with one of those called Oxipicni, as from Lychanos Hypaton to Lychanos Meson: in the first, according to Gaudentius, the semi-tone is lowest, the second has a semi-tone in the middle, and the third has a semi-tone for it's highest interval.

FRET, a particular stop on some instruments, particularly Bass Viols and Lutes; being strings tyed round the neck thereof at such distances, within which such and such notes are to be found; these strings or Frets are sometimes, yet seldom, put on the Bass Violin for learners, and taken off again when they can find the notes without them; on Lutes and Viols

they always remain.

FRIGIO, rather Phrygio. See PHRYGIAN.

FUGA Authentica & plagale, in unisono, ad offavam Quintam, &c. See Fugue. Fuga Fuc a per Arfin & Thefin, is if when the guide or leading part of a Fugue ascends, those that follow it imitate it descending; and if it descend the other parts, instead of descending, imitate it ascending: this makes what the Italians call moti contrarii.

Fuga Authentica, is when the notes of the guide or

leader ascend.

Fuga Plagale, is when they descend. Or rather these authentic and plagal Fugues, are such as proceed in one or other of those modes.

Fuga in Consequenza, is properly a canon or Fugue. See CANON.

Fuga Grave, is when the founds of a Fugue are deep or

low, and the motion flow. See GRAVE.

FUGHA, 'tis thus the Italians write the word, though they often write it Fuga, and is what otherwise has the name of Riposta, Reditta, Replica, Consequenza, Imitatione, &c. notwithstanding there is a difference between these words, especially between Imitation and Fugue. See each in their places.

Fuga Homophona, is the same as Fuga in unifono.

Fuga perpetua, is the same as has been said of canon. See Canon.

FUGA pathetica, a foft pathetic moving affecting Fugue,

proper to express some passion, especially grief.

FUGUE, is when the different parts of a musical composition follow each other, each repeating what the first had

performed.

If the Fugue be made through the piece, 'tis called Fuga in Confequenza or Canone. See CANON. But if only in part of the piece, and the inftrument repeat the same intervals, either above or below, 'tis then called Fuga in Unisono. And if made an octave, fifth or fourth, above or below the guide or subject, 'tis said to be Fuga ad octavam, Quintam, or Quartam. All the other manners of repetitions, ad Secundam, Tertiam, Sextam, &c. higher or lower, are only esteemed imitations; in which the intervals of the guide perhaps may not be exactly observed: but for an example, suppose the guide proceed by conjoint degrees, as,



and the part which imitates, may proceed in a different

There are three kinds of Fugues, the simple, double, and

counter Fugues.

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The fingle or fimple Fugue, is some point confisting of four, five, or more notes, begun by one fingle part, and seconded by a second, third, fourth, fifth, Gc. (if the composition confist of so many) repeating the same or such like notes, i. e. in the same proportions, so that the several parts follow or come in one after another in the same manner, the leading part slying before those that follow.

FUGUE double, or Fuga doppia, is when two or more different points move together in a Fugue, and are alternately mixed and interchanged by the several parts. See PART.

FUGE counter. See COUNTER FUGUE.

FUNDAMENTAL, the principal note of a fong or composition, to which all the rest are in some measure adapted, and by which they are swayed; this note is also by musicians called the key to the song. See Key.

FUNDAMENTALIS Sonus. See TRIAS HAR-

MONICA.

FUNDAMENTO, is in general, every part that plays or fings the bass; but the thorough bass is more particularly so called, because it is the bass or foundation of all harmony. See Bass and Harmony.

FURIA, or Con Furia, fignifies with fury or violence; but not so much in respect to the loudness of the sound, as

the quickness of the time and movement.

F FAUT, one of the cleffs. See CLEFF.

FUSA, is one of the notes in music, called by the French Croche, the Italians also often call it Chroma, the figure of it is sometimes thus , that is with a black head and a hook at

the bottom; and sometimes with a white one, thus Q; in

common time, there are four or eight in the bar; their number to a bar is different in different species of triple, for which See TRIPOLA or TRIPLE; this is our quaver, See Note, CROTCHET, and QUAVER.

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Is used to signify one the cleffs. See CLEFF.

It is the cleff of the highest part in a concert, called the treble or alt. See TREBLE and ALT.

It appears, that because this letter Gamma was placed at the head, or marked the first sound in Guido's scale, the whole scale of music came to be called Gamma ut or Gamut. See GAMUT.

GALLIARD, a fort of dance, antiently in great request; consisting of very different motions and actions, sometimes proceeding Terra à Terra, or smoothly along, sometimes capering, sometimes along, and sometimes across the room.

Thoinot Arbeau in his Orchefography describes it, consisting of five steps, and five positions of the feet, which the dancers performed before each other, and whereof he gives us the score or Tablatura, which is of six minims, and two triple times. See TIME, TRIPLE, and MINIM.

GALLIARDA, the name of a tune that belongs to a

dance called a Galliard. See GALLIARD.

It is commonly in triple time of a brisk and lively humour, and fomething like a jig. See IIG.

and something like a jig. See JIG.

GAMBA Leg, as Viola di Gamba, a Leg Viol. See VIOL.

GAM, GAMMA, GAMMUT, or GAMMA-UT, a fcale, whereon we learn to found the musical notes, ut, re, mi, fa, fol, la, in their several orders and dispositions. See Note and Scale.

The invention of this scale is owing to Guido Aretine, a monk of Aretium in Tuscany; tho' it is not so properly an invention, as an improvement on the Diagramma or scale of

the Grecians. See DIAGRAM and SCALE.

The Gamut is also called the harmonical hand, by reason Guido first made use of the figure of the hand, to demonstrate the progression of his sounds. Finding the Diagramma or scale of the antients of too small extent, Guido added sive more chords or notes to it: One below the Proslambanomenos, or the gravest note of the antients; and sour above the Nete Hyperbolaon or acutest. The first he called Hypo Proslambanomenos, and denoted it by the letter G, or the Greek \(\Gamma\) Gamma rather; which note being at the head of the scale, occasioned the whole scale to be called by the name Gamm or Gamut.

Some

Some fay Guido's intention in calling his first note T Gamma, was to shew that he took his scale from the Greeks, who were the inventors of music; others are of a different opinion. Be that as it will, his scale is divided into three series or columns, the first called durum or sharp, the second natural; and third, molle or flat, as represented by the following scheme. But fince his time, some alteration has been made there.

The Gamut, or Guido's Scale.

	ee	B.dur la Sol	Nat!	Molle	dialo nel-le
	CC	fa	ut	Sol	10715
gs	aa G	re	la Sol	fa mi re	
X	f	la	fa.	ut	100 J. C.
/ H	d	Sol fa	re	la	
	B	mi re	la	fa	to in the state of
	G	rut	Sol	re ut	A.J
\ _3:	e	la	mi re		
	B	fa mi	ut		coro en como la
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The use of this scale is to make the passages and transitions from B molle to B durum, by means of tones and femitones. The feries of B natural standing betwixt the other two, communicates with both; so that to name the chords of the scale by these syllables, if we would have the semi-tones

in their natural places, viz. b, c, and, e, f, then we apply ut to g; and after la, we go into the series of B natural, at fa; and after the la of this, we return to the former at mi, and so on: And we may begin at ut in c, and pass into the first series at mi, and then back to the other at fa, by which means the one transition is a semi-tone, viz. la, fa, and the other a tone la, mi. To follow the order of B molle, we may begin with ut in c or f, and make each semi-tone after the same manner. See Tone and Semi-tone.

Hence came the barbarous names of Gamut, Are, Bmi, &c. But what perplexes this work is here with fo many fyllables applied to every chord: and all to mark the places of the femi-tones, which the simple letters A, b, c, &c. do as well

and with more case.

Several alterations have been made in the Gamut. M. Le Murs particularly added a seventh syllable, viz. Si, and the English usually throw out that and ut, and make the other five serve for all, as will be shewn under the article Solfaing. See SOLFAING.

Notwithstanding this syllable Si is rejected by our musicians, we have made use of it in many places of this work, where in more than one example it was necessary. See Tuono, Mode, &c.

GAMM, Gamma ut or Gamut, is also the first or gravest note in the modern scale of music, the reason why thus called is shewn in the preceeding article, it was the Hypoproslambano-

menos of Guido's scale. See SYSTEM.

GAVOTTA, or Gavette, is a kind of dance, the air whereof has two strains, brisk and lively by nature, and in common time; each of it's strains are played twice over, the first has usually sour or eight bars, and the second contains eight, twelve or more. The first begins with a minim, or two crotchets, or notes of equal value, and the hand rising; and ends with the fall of the hand upon the dominant or mediant of the mode, never upon the final, unless it be a rondeau. (See RONDEAU.) And the last begins with the rise of the hand, and ends with the fall upon the final of the mode. See DOMINANT, FINAL, and MODE.

Tempi di GAVOTTA, is when only the time or movement of a Gavotte is imitated, without any regard had to the measure or number of bars or strains; little airs are often found in sonatas, which have this phrase to regulate their

motions.

GAYMENTE, gayly, briskly and lively.

GENERALIS Baffus. See Basso CONTINUO or ORGANO.

GENERALIS Paufa. See PUNTO and CORONA.

GENERI, are certain manners of moving through the degrees or founds, and fenfible intervals, whereof are octave and it's double, &c. are composed, by the Latins called Genus. See GENUS.

GENUS, by the ancients called Genus Melodia, is a certain manner of dividing and subdividing the principles of melody; i. e. the consonant and dissonant intervals into their concinnous parts. See Consonance, Concord,

INTERVAL, and MELODY.

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The moderns, after the Grecians, confidering the octave as the most perfect of intervals, and that whereon all the concords depend in the present theory of music; the division of that interval is considered, as containing the true division of the whole scale. See SCALE and OCTAVE.

But the ancients went to work somewhat differently; the diatessaron or fourth, was the least interval, which they admitted as concord: and therefore they sought first how that might be most conveniently divided, from whence they con-

stituted the diapente or fifth, and diapason or octave.

The diatessaron being thus, as it were, the root and foundation of the scale, what they called the Genera or kinds, arose for it's various divisions, and hence they define the Genus Modulandi the manner of dividing the tetrachord, and disposing it's four sounds as to succession. See Tetra-Chord.

The Genera of music, it is agreed by Aristoxenus, Bacchius, Euclid, Boëtius, and all the ancients, were three, the enharmonic, chromatic, and diatonic; the two first were variously subdivided; and even the last, though that is commonly reckoned to be without any species, yet different authors have proposed different divisions under that name, without giving any particular names to the species, as was done to the other two. See Species.

Aristoxenus, Aristides, Nicomachus and others, divide mufic into seven parts, which are, the genera, intervals, tunes,

fystems, tones or modes, transposition, and melopæia.

The difference of the three genera, fay they, confifts in the different division and disposition of the tetrachord. The tetrachord of the enharmonic is a semi-tone and two dieses, the chromatic two semi-tones and a trihemitone, and the diatonic, two tones and a semi-tone.

Gaudentius the philosopher, after agreeing with the other authors above recited, that there are three genera, or kinds of smusic, proceeds to a distinction between them, and a division of their intervals; and says, Species vero seu colores generum

Gunt

funt plures. In the enharmonic the least interval, which he calls Intervallum incompositum in each, is the fourth part of a tone, and called Diesis enharmonica; in the chromatic the least interval, is the third part of a tone, called Diesis chromatica; and in the diatonic, (fays he) the femi-tone is the leaft interval, and this is again called Syntonum. So that the diatonic proceeds by the semi-tone, tone, and tone rising, and è contra falling; the chromatic has a different progression as the species differ, but in one species, for an example, it proceeds rifing by a femitone, a femi-tone and triemitone, or semi-ditonus, or third flat; and contrarily descending. And the enharmonic by diefis, diefis and ditonus, by Euclid called incompositum; each of which dieses is a quarter of a tone. He continues, that he shall only treat of the diatonic, because the chromatic and enharmonic were not, even at his time, fo much used as the other; and Martianus Capella says the fame thing. The reason was, because the diatonic was easily practifed, and required not so close an application as the chromatic, which was not near fo difficult and nice as the enharmonic, that consequently required a master's skill.

We shall here give the reader Aristoxenus's system, as laid down by Vitruvius, which will, at one view, shew in what manner the Genera differ from each other. (See Plate annexed.)

On the upper part of the plate are placed the Genera, viz. enharmonic, chromatic and diatonic; then the plate is divided into three parts, which are also subdivided by five lines ascending, which are the divisions of the five tetrachords; every tetrachord is again divided into three parts by dotted lines, which shews the sounds whereof each is composed, between these dotted lines are written the names of the intervals of each sound in the tetrachord in each of the Genera. As two dieses and a tierce major in the enharmonic, two semitones and a tierce minor in the chromatic, and one semi-tone and two tones in the diatonic.

In the middle are placed the five tetrachords represented by notes, the white ones are called *immoveable*, because they change not their places in whatever Genus they are used; the black are moveable, as shifting their places according to the Genus they are employed in. For the first moveable one, which in the diatonic and chromatic is a semi-tone distant below the immoveable one, advances in the enharmonic to the distance of a diesis, or quarter of a tone. And the second moveable one, which in the diatonic is only a tone higher than the immoveable, rises in the enharmonic two tones higher or a tierce major, and in the chromatic, one tone and a semi-tone, or a tierce minor.

Aristoxenian System

	The	Enharmonic	Tone	Diefes.	Tierce May	Diefis	Tieror May	Diefis_	Tierre Illas	Diolie			Terce Illa.
	Genera Genera	Chromatic	Tone	Semitone Semitone	Tercemin	Semitone	Tiercellin.	Semitone	Tierce Illin.	Comstono	Semitone Transmit	Semitone	Tierce Min
	•	Diatonic	S Tone	Semitone Tone	Tone	Tone	Tone	Semitone Tone	Tone		Tone	Semitone	Tone
ete Syne iranete Synen ite Synen lese – –	ynemenon -	-XI - II - X - 10 IX - 9		- <u> </u>	<u> </u>	_ _			-	1	- -, - 	-	
ychanos whypate ypate N ychanos	Mefon	-VII - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 -	 	/-! !	-1	-	<u> </u>	7	- :- /-				<u>-</u> -
upate H	Hypaton ypaton romenos	-III3	\$-					II	-		IV	-	
roslamba		The Fi		-		I							

18 XV Nete Hyperlolæon
17 XIV Paranete Hyperbolæon
16 XIII Trite Hyperbolæon
15 XII Nete Diezeugmenon
14 Paranete Diezeugmenon
13 Trite Diezeugmenon
12 Paramese

On each fide opposite to these notes, are written their Greek names, and these again are distinguished by figures of two sorts, the Arabian cyphers shew the eighteen sounds according to the order wherein Euclid placed them, and also as found in Aristoxenus's works. The Roman figures shew the fifteen sounds according to the disposition they ought to have in a song, which should never be above two octaves, that being the ordinary compass of the voice.

At the bottom of the plate, are marked the five tetrachords, to shew that each tetrachord has four sounds, the first and last whereof an immoveable, and the two middle ones moveable, the immoveable ones are used in common, for the latter of the tetrachord Hypaton is the first of that called Meson, and the last of Meson the first of Synemmenon; these three tetrachords

are from this called conjoint. See SYNAPHE.

But 'tis not so with Synemmenon and Diezeugmenon; for the upper immoveable one which ends Synemmenon, does not begin Diezeugmenon which follows, nor does the lower one of Diezeugmenon end that called Synemmenon which preceeds it, and it is for this reason, that these tetrachords came to be called

Diezeugmenon, q. d. disjoint or separated.

(The moderns have rejected the enharmonic Genus, because fay they, it's intervals are so extreamly small, that they almost become insensible, and can therefore contribute little to harmony, and at the same time so very difficult to be performed, that sew if any are by them allowed to have practised it in any perfection, and have joined the diatonic and chromatic together, which is the only Genus Melodiæ known, or even thought of, by most musicians of this time. Nor do we yet know all the varities each of these is capable of.)

The parts of the Diatessaron the ancients called the Diafiems of the feveral Genera, upon which their difference depends, and which in the enharmonic are particularly Diess and Ditonum, in the chromatic, Hemitonium and Triemitonium, and in the diatonic, the Hemitonium or Limma and the Tonus.

But under the several names which distinguish the Genera, there are other different intervals or ratios which constitute the Colores Generum, or species of the enharmonic, chromatic, and diatonic; add, that what is a diastem in one Genus, is a system in another; for a system containing two intervals, and the tone of the diatonic being divided into four dieses in the enharmonic, therein is a system; yet in the diatonic remains only a diastem or interval. See DIASTEM, DIAGRAM, and SYSTEM.

GE, RE, SOL, is one of the cleffs. See CLEFF.

GIA, is an Italian adverb fignifying before, as Gia Maistro di Capella, that is to say, before the master of music. See CAPELLA and MAESTRO.

GIGA, Gieque, or Gigue, a jig, fome of which are played flow, and others quick, brisk and lively, but are always in full measure, and in triple time; of some kind or other, usually $\frac{6}{8}$ or $\frac{1}{8}$. See TRIPLE.

Menage derives the word for the Italian Giga, a musical in-

strument mentioned by Danté.

GRADO, degree, when the Italians put di Grado, they mean by conjoint degrees, which is when the notes rife or fall from space to line, or from line to space, without making any leap of a third, fourth or other interval, which leap by them is called Salto. See SALTO.

Di GRADO ascendente, by conjoint degrees rising, as ut,

re, mi, fa.

Di GRADO descendente, by conjoint degrees falling, as sol, fa, mi, re, ut. See DEGREE, CONJOINT, MODE, and TEMPO OF TIME.

GRADUAL, is applied to the fifteen pfalms sung among the *Hebrews* on the fifteen steps of the temple: others are of opinion that they were thus denominated, because the singers raise their voice by degrees from first to last. See PSALM.

Cardinal Bona, in his treatise of Divine Psalmody, says, the fifteen gradual psalms are intended to represent to the mind that we only arrive at persection of goodness and holyness by degrees: he goes on to lay down fifteen degrees of virtue, corresponding to these fifteen psalms; five of them are for beginners, five for proficients, and the rest for the persect.

GRANDE Trombone. See TROMBONE,

GRANDEE, is used to distinguish the Grand Chorus from the rest of the piece.

GRATIOSO, means after an agreeable, pretty, grace-

ful manner.

GRAVE, a very grave and flow motion, somewhat faster than adagio, and slower than large. See ADAGIO and LARGO.

GRAVE, is also applied to a sound, which is of a low or deep tune. See Sound and Tune.

The thicker the cord or string, the more grave the tone

or note; and the smaller, the acuter. See CHORD.

Sounds are supposed to be grave in proportion as the vibrations of the chords which produce them are more or less quick. See GRAVITY.

GRAVEMENT, grave or flow. See GRAVE.

GRAVITY, an affection of found, whereby it becomes

denominated deep or low.

GRAVITY stands in opposition to acuteness, which is that affection of found whereby it is denominated acute or sprill. See ACUTENESS.

The relation of Gravity and acuteness, is the principal thing concerned in music; the distinctness and determinateness of which relation, gives the sound the denomination of harmonical and musical. See Music and HARMONY.

of harmonical and musical. See Music and HARMONY.

The degrees of Gravity, &c. depend on the nature of the fonorous body itself, and the particular figure and quantity thereof. Tho' in some cases, they likewise depend on the part

of the body where 'tis ftruck.

Thus, e.g. the founds of two bells of different metals of the same shape and dimensions, being struck in the same place, will differ in found; i. e. in acuteness and Gravity. And two bells of the same metal will differ in sound, if they differ in shape and magnitude, or be struck in different places.

So in chords, all other things being equal, if they differ in tension, matter or demension, they will always differ in

Gravity. See CHORD.

Thus again, the found of a piece of gold is much graver than that of a piece of filver of the fame shape and dimensions; and in this case, the tones are (cateris paribus) proportional to the specific Gravities. So a solid sphere of brass two soot diameter, will sound graver than another of one foot diameter; and here the sounds are proportional to the quantities of the matter or absolute weights.

But it must be observed, that acuteness and Gravity, as also loudness and lowness, are but relative things. We commonly call a found acute or loud in respect of another which is grave or low, in respect of the former: So that the same found may be acute and grave, as also loud and low, in

different comparisons.

The degrees of acuteness and Gravity make the different tones or tunes of a voice or found; so we may say one found is in tune with another, when they are in the same degree of

Gravity. See TUNE.

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The immediate cause or means of this diversity, of tune lies deep. The modern musicians fix it on the different velocities of the vibrations of the sonorous bodies; in which sense, Gravity may be defined a relative property of sound, which with respect to some other, is the effect of a less number of vibrations accomplished in the same time, or of vibrations of longer duration: in which sense also acuteness is the ef-

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fect or a greater number of vibrations, or vibrations of a shorter duration.

If two or more founds be compared in relation of Gravity, &c. they are either equal or unequal in the degrees of tune.

Such as are equal are called unifons. See UNISON.

The unequal, including as it were a distance between each other, constitute what we call an interval in music, which is properly the difference in point of *Gravity* between the two founds. See INTERVAL.

Upon this unequality or difference does the whole effect depend, and in respect thereof, those intervals are divided into concords and discords. See CONCORD and DISCORD;

fee also SCALE.

GROSSE quart posaune. See TROMBONE.

GROSSO Trombone. See TROMBONE OF SACBUT.

GROUP, is one of the kinds of diminutions of long notes, which in the working, forms a fort of a Group, knot or bush.

A Group commonly confifts of four or more crotchets, quavers, &c. tied together at the discretion of the composer.

Ascending. Descending.



GUIDA, the guide or leading voice or instrument in a piece of music in parts, 'tis in sugues called dux, and the parts that are to imitate and follow, are said to be it's comes, or, as the *Italians* say, in consequenza. See Dux, Fugue, Canon, and Consequenza.

GUITARRA, a musical instrument of the string kind, with five double rows of strings, of which those that are bass are in the middle; unless it be one for the burden, an octave

lower than the fourth.

This instrument was first used in Spain, and by the Italians it has the particular denomination of Spagnuola given it: it is found in Italy and other countries, but more frequently in Spain.

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HABITUDO & Differentia, are terms made use of by Nicomachus, to distinguish a sort of proportion. "Ha-" bitudo, says he, is a ratio measuring any interval, and difference is the excessor defect of the sounds with regard to one another. "Some are of opinion, adds he, that Habitudo & Differentia, are the same things: but they are in the wrong; for one has the same difference to two, as two to one, but not the same Habitude: for in two one is doubled, but one contains but half of two."

HAND harmonical, is used by some writers for the ancient diagramma, or scale of music, upon which they learned to sing, or play on any instruments. See GAMUT, SCALE, and DIAGRAM.

The reason of this appellation was, that Guido Aretine upon inventing the notes, ut, re, mi, fa, sol, la, disposed them on the fingers, of the figure of a Hand stretched out. See Note.

He changed the letters of the alphabet, ('till that time used to express the notes,) for these six syllables, which he took out of the first strophe of the hymn of St John the Baptist, composed by Paulus Diaconus.

UT, queant laxis R. E. sonare Fibris MI, ra gestorum F. A, muli tuorum, SO L, ve poluti L. A, bii reatum.

Santte Johannes.

HARMONIA, Harmony, the result or agreement of two or more different notes or sounds joined together in ac-

HARMONICA, a term given by the antients, to that part of music which considers the difference and proportion of sounds, with respect to acute and grave. See ACUTE, GRAVE, and HARMONY.

HARMONICA Regula. See Monochord.

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HARMONICAL Composition, in a general sense, includes the composition both of harmony and melody, i. e. of music or songs, both in a single part, and in several parts. See Composition.

In it's more proper and limited fense, Harmonical Composition is restrained to that of Harmony; in which sense it may be defined, the art of disposing and concerting several single parts together in such a manner as to make one agreeable whole. See Song.

The art of Harmony has long been known under the name

of counterpoint. See COUNTERPOINT.

At the time when parts were first introduced, music being then very simple, there were no different notes of time, and

the parts were in every note made concord.

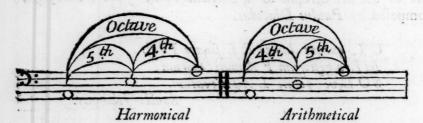
This they afterwards called fimple or plain counterpoint, to distinguish it from another kind then introduced, wherein notes of different value were used, and discords brought in between the parts. See DISCORD and PART.

This they called figurative counterpoint. See FIGURA-

TIVE COUNTERPOINT.

HARMONICAL Interval, is an interval or difference of two founds which are agreeable to the ear, whether in confonance or succession. See INTERVAL.

HARMONICAL Division, is a division of the octave into two intervals, which are both good but unequal; this is done two ways, viz. into a fifth and a fourth, or a fourth and fifth; i. e. in the former case, the fifth is the lowest, and the fourth a top; in the latter, the fourth is lowest, and the fifth a top; the first is the barmonical, the other the arithmetical division of the octave.



The whole doctrine of the ancient tones or modes is founded on these different divisions. See HARMONY, TONE, and OCTAVE.

HARMUNICAL Canon. See Monochord and Ca-

HARMONICAL Mean. See TRIAS HARMONICA.

HARMONICAL Intervals are the same with concords. See CONCORD.

They are thus called as being the only effential ingredients

in harmony. See HARMONY.

HARMONICAL Proportion, is a fort of proportion between three or four quantities, wherein, in the former case, the difference of the first and second, is to the difference of the second and third, as the first to the third; and in the

latter

latter case, the difference of the first and second, is to the difference of the third and fourth, as the first to the fourth.

Again, if there be three quantities in an harmonical proportion, the difference between the fecond and twice the first, is to the first as the second to the third; also the first and last is to twice the first, as the last to the middle one.

If there be four quantities in an harmonical proportion, the difference between the fecond and twice the first, is to the

first as the third to the fourth.

HARMONICAL Sounds, is an appellation given by Mr Sauveur, to fuch founds as always make a certain determinate number of vibrations in the time, that one of the fundamentals, to which they are referr'd, makes one vibration. See Sound and VIBRATION.

HARMONICAL Sounds are produced by the parts of chords, &c. which vibrate a certain number of times, while the whole chord vibrates once. See CHORD.

By this they are distinguished from the third, fifth, &c. where the relation of the vibrations is 4:5, 5:6, or 3:2.

See THIRD, FIFTH, &c.

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The relations of founds had only been confidered in the feries of numbers, 1:2, 2:3, 3:4, 4:5, &c. which produced the intervals called octave, fifth, third, fourth, &c. And Mr Sauveur first considered them in the natural series, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. and examined the relations of the founds arifing therefrom. The refult is, that the first interval 1:2, is an octave; the second 1: 3, a twelfth; the third 1: 4, a fifteenth or double octave; the fourth 1:5, a seventeenth;

and the fifth 1:6, a nineteenth, &c.

This new confideration of the relations of founds, is more natural than the old one; and does express and represent the whole of music, and is in effect, all the music that nature makes without the affishance of art. The strings of a Harpfichord, or parts of a bell, beside their general sound, which is proportionate to their length, tension, dimension &c. do also at the same time yield other subordinate and acuter founds, which a nice ear, with good attention, clearly distinguishes. These subordinate sounds arise from the particular vibrations of some of the parts of the string or bell, which are, as it were detached from the rest, and make separate vibrations: In effect, every half, third, fourth, &c. of a chord, performs it's vibration apart, while a general vibration is made by the whole chord. Now all these subordinate sounds are barmonical with regard to the whole found: The least acute which we hear, is oftave with the whole found; the next that follows it, is a twelfth with the whole found; the next a fevenfeventeenth, till they grow too acute for the ear to perceive them. Now throughout the whole we hear no fuch thing as a found that makes a fifth, or a third, &c. with the whole found; none in fhort but what are comprised in the series of harmonical founds.

Add, that if the breath or bellows that blow a wind inftrument, be played stronger and stronger, the tone will be continually raised; but this only in the ratio of harmonical sounds. So that it appears, that nature, when she makes as it were a system of music herself, uses no other than these kinds of sounds; and yet they had hitherto remained unknown to the musicians: Not but they frequently fell into them, but it was inadvertently, and without knowing what they did. Mr Sauveur shews that the structure of an Organ, depends entirely on this unknown principle. See ORGAN.

HARMONICKS, a branch or division of the antient

music. See Music.

The HARMONICA or HARMONICKS, are those parts which considered the differences and proportions of sounds, with respect to acute and grave: In contradiction to Rythmica and Metrica. See METRICA and RYTHMICA.

The only part of their music the ancients have left us any tollerable account of, is the Harmonica, which is but very ge-

neral and theoretical.

Mr Malcolm has made an enquiry into the Harmonica, or harmonical principles of the antients: They reduced their doctrines into seven parts, viz. of sounds; of intervals; of system; of the genera; of the tones or modes; of mutation; and of melopæia. See each considered under it's proper article, Sound, Interval, System, Genus, &c.

HARMONY, the agreeable result or union of several musical sounds, heard at one and the same time; or the mixture of divers sounds, which together have an effect a-

greeable to the ear. See Sound.

A continued fuccession of musical sounds, produces melody; so does a continued combination of these produce Harmony. See Melody.

Among the ancients however, as also sometimes among the moderns, *Harmony* is used in the strict sense of consonance; and it is equivalent to symphony. See Consonance and Symphony.

The words Concord and Harmony do really fignify the fame thing; tho' custom has made a little difference between them. Concord is the agreeable effect of two founds in confonance, and Harmony the effect of any greater number of agreeable founds in confonance. See Concord.

Again,

Again, Harmony always implies confonance; but concord is also applied to sounds in succession; tho never where the terms can stand agreeably in consonance: The effect of an agreeable succession of sounds, is called Melody, and that of an agreeable consonance Harmony.

The ancients, fays Mr Malcolm, feem to have been entirely unacquainted with Harmony, the foul of modern music; in all their explications of the melopæia, they say not a word

of concert, or the Harmony of parts.

We have instances indeed, continues that author, of their joining several voices or instruments in consonance; but then those voices and instruments are not so joined, as that each had a distinct and proper melody, so made a succession of various concords; but were either unisons or octaves in every note; and so all performed the same individual melody, and constituted one song. See Song and Synaulia.

When the parts differ not in the tension of the whole, but in the different relations of the successive notes, 'tis this that constitutes the modern art of Harmony. See Music and

MELOPOEIA.

HARMONY is well defined the fum of concords, arising from a combination of two or more concords; i. e. three or more simple sounds striking the ear altogether, and different

compositions of concords makes different Harmony.

To understand the nature, and to determine the number and preserve of Harmonies, it is to be considered, that in every compound sound, where there are not more than three simple ones, there are three kinds of relations, viz. primary relation of every simple sound to the sundamental or gravest, whereby they make different degrees of concord with it; the mutual relations of the acute sounds, each with the other, whereby they mix concord or discord into the compound: And the secondary relation of the whole, whereby all the terms unite their vibrations, or coincide more or less frequently.

Suppose e.g. four sounds, A, B, C and D, wherof A is the gravest, B the next, then C and D the acutest. Here A is the fundamental, and the relations of B, C, and D, are primary relations: So if B be a third greater above A, that primary relation is 4:5; and if C be a fifth to A, that primary relation is 3:2; and if D be an octave to A, that is 2:1. For the mutual relations of the acute terms, B, C, D, they are had by taking primary relations to the sundamental, and substracting each lesser from each greater, thus B to C is 5:6, a third lesser; B to D, 5:8, a sixth lesser, and lastly, to find the secondary relations of the whole, seek

the

of the primary relations, i. e. the least number that will be divided by each of them exactly. This is the thing sought; and shews that all the simple sounds coincide after so many vibrations of the fundamental, as the number expresses.

So in the preceeding example, the lesser terms of the three primary relations are 4, 2, 1, whose least common dividend is 4, consequently at every fourth vibration of the fundamental, the whole will coincide. Now *Harmony* we have observed, is a compound found, consisting of two, three, or

more fimple founds.

It's proper ingredients are concords; and all discords, at least in the primary and mutual relations, are absolutely forbidden. 'Tis true discords are used in music, but not of themselves simply, but to set off the concords by their contrast and opposition. See Concord and Discord.

Hence any number of concords being proposed to stand in primary relations, with a common fundamental; we discover whether or no they constitute perfect Harmony, by find-

ing their mutual relations.

Thus, suppose the following concords or primary relations, viz. a greater third, fifth and octave given, their mutual relations are all concord, and therefore may stand in Harmony. For the greater third and fifth are to one another as 5:6, a lesser third; the greater third and octave as 5:8, a lesser fixth; and the fifth and octave, as 3: 4, a fourth. fourth, fifth, and octave be proposed, 'tis evident they cannot stand in Harmony; by reason, betwixt the sourth and fifth there is a discord, viz. the ratio 8:9. Again, supposing any number of founds which are concord each to the next, from the lowest to the highest; to know if they can stand in Harmony, we must find the primary and all the mutual relations, which must be all concord. So let any number of founds be as, 4:5, 6:8, they stand in Harmony, by reafon each to each is concord: But the following ones cannot, viz. 4:6:9, by reason 4:9 is a discord.

The necessary conditions of all Harmony then are concords in the primary and mutual relations; on which footing a table is easily formed of all the possible varieties: But to determine the preference of Harmonies, the secondary relations are to be considered. The perfection of Harmonies depend on all the three relations; it is not the best primary relation that makes the best Harmony: For then a fourth and a fifth must be better than a fourth and fixth, whereas the first two cannot stand together, because of the discord of the mutual relation; nor does the best secondary relation carry it, for then would a

fourth

fourth and a fifth, whose secondary relation with one common fundamental, is fix, be better than a third and fifth, whose secondary relation is ten. But there also the preference is due to the better mutual relations. Indeed the mutual relations depend on the primary; though not fo as that the best primary shall always produce the best mutual relations: However, the primary relations are of the most importance; and together with the secondary, afford us the following rule for determining the preference of Harmonies.

Viz. Comparing two Harmonies together that have an equal number of terms, that which has the best primary and fecondary relations, is the most perfect. But in cases where the advantage lies in the primary relation of the one, and in the secondary of the other, we have no certain rule; the primary are certainly the most considerable; but how the advantage in these ought to be proportioned to the disadvantage of the other, or vice versa, we know not. So that a well

tuned ear must be the last refort in these cases.

HARMONY is divided into simple and compound. Simple HARMONY, is that to which there is no concord

to the fundamental above an octave. See OCTAVE.

The ingredients of fimple Harmony, are the feven original timple concords, of which there can be but eighteen different combinations that are Harmony; which are given in the following table from Mr Malcolm.

The table of simple Harmonies.

Secondary Relations. Secondary Relations. 5th - - 8ve - 2 3d grt. 5th - - 4 3d grt. 5th - - 8ve 4th - - 8ve - 3 3d leff. 5th - - 10 3d leff. 5th - - 8ve 6th greater 8ve - 3 4th 6th grt. 3 4th - - 6th grt. 8ve 3d greater 8ve - 4 3d grt. 6th grt. 12 3d grt. 6th grt. 8ve 3d leffer 8ve 5 3d leff. 6th leff. 5 3d leff. 6th leff. 8ve 6th lesser 8ve -1514th - - 6th less. 1514th - 6th less. 8ve

These are all the possible combinations of the concords that are Harmony: For the octave is compounded of a fifth and a fourth, or a fixth and a third, which have the variety of greater and leffer; out of these are the first fix Harmonies composed: Then the fifth being composed of a greater and lesser third, and the fixth of a fourth and third; from these proceed the next fix of the table: Then an octave joined to each of these fix, make the last fix of the table.

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The perfection of the first twelve, is according to the order of the table; of the first fix each has an octave, and their preference preserence is according to the persection of that other lesser concord joined with the octave. For the next six, the preserence is given to the two combinations with the fifth, whereof that which has the third greater is the best. For the last six, they are not placed last, because the least persect, but because they are the most complex, and are the mixtures of the other twelve with each other; in point of persection, they are plainly preserable to the preceding six, as having the same ingredients with an octave more.

Compound HARMONY is that which to the Harmony of

one octave adds that of another.

For the compound Harmonies, their varieties are easily found out of the combinations of the simple harmonies of several cctaves.

HARMONY again may be divided into that of concords, and that of discords. See Concord and Discord.

The first is that which we have hitherto consider'd, wherein nothing but concords are admitted.

The second is that wherein discords are used, and mixed with concord. See HARMONICAL COMPOSITION.

Sometimes the word Harmony is applied to a fingle voice, when fonorous, clear, foft, and sweet; or to a fingle instrument, when it yields a very agreeable found. Thus we say the Harmony of her Voice, of his Lute, &c.

For composition of Harmony see HARMONICAL COM-

POSITION.

HARP, a musical inftrument of the string kind, being of a triangular figure, and placed an end between the legs to

be played on.

There is some diversity in the structure of Harps. That called the triple Harp has seventy-eight strings or chords, which makes sour octaves; the first row is for semi-tones, and the third is unison with the first: there are two rows of pins or screws on the right side, serving to keep the strings tight in their holes, which are sastened at the other end to three rows of pins on the upper side. This instrument is struck with the singers and thumbs of both hands; ir's music is like that of the Spinet; all its strings go from semi-tone to semi-tone. Whence some called it the inverted Spinet. See Spinet.

It is capable of a greater degree of perfection than the Lute.

See LUTE.

King David is usually painted with a Harp in his hands; but we have no testimony in all antiquity, that the Hebrew Harp, which they called Chinner, was any thing like ours. On a Hebrew medal of Simon Machabæus, we see two forts

of mulical instruments, they are both of them very different

from our Harp, having only three or four strings.

Papias, and Du Cange after him, will have the Harp to have its name from the Arpi, a people in Italy, who were the first that invented it, and from whom it was borrow'd by other nations.

All authors agree that it was very different from the Lyra, Cythara, or Barbiton used among the Romans. See LYRA, and CYTHARA.

Fortunatus, L. 7mo, Carm. 8vo, witnesses that it was an instrument of the Barbarians.

Romanisque Lyra, plaudet tibi Barbarus Harpâ, Græcus Achilliaca, Crotta Britania canat.

Menage, &c. derives the word from the Latin Harpa, and that from the German Herp or Herpff, others bring it from the Latin Carpo, because touch'd or thrum'd with the finger. Dr Hicks derives it from Harpa, or Hearpa, which fignify the same thing; the first in the Language of the Cymbri, the second in that of the Anglo-Saxons.

The English Priest, who wrote the life of St Dunstan, and who lived with him in the Xth Century, says, Cap. 2. N. 12. Sumpsit Secum ex more Cytharam suam, quam paterni Lingua Hearpam vocamus. Which intimates the word to be

Anglo-Saxon.

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HARPEGGIATO, or HARPEGGIO, fignifies to cause the several sounds of one accord to be heard not together, but distinctly one after the other, beginning with either at pleasure, but commonly with the lowest.

HARPSICOHRD, or HARPSICAL, a musical infirument of the string kind, play'd on after the manner of the

Organ. See ORGAN.

The Italians call it Clave Cymbola, and the French Clavecin, in Latin 'tis usually call'd Grave Cymbolum, q. d. a large deep Cymbol. The Harpsichord is furnished with a set, and sometimes two sets of keys. The touching or striking these keys, move a kind of little jacks, which move a double row of chords or strings of brass or iron, stretched on the table of the instrument over sour bridges. See Music.

As this instrument is the most harmonious of all the string kind, we shall give the reader the following sentences con-

cerning it.

The first thing to be done to learn to play on this as well as any other instrument, is to learn the gamut, or scale of music by wrote, with the notes names, and their places a-

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mong the five lines. In order to which, know that all lessons design'd for this instrument are prick'd on two staves, each containing five lines. The upper one of which staves contains the treble, and has the proper cleff set at the beginning of it: See CLEFF. And the lower line or stave has the bass cleff mark'd also at the beginning. See Bass.

But that this may be the better understood, we here prefix the figure of the front of the *Harfichord* with all its keys, clearly explained, with the notes and what keys to touch

in order to found them.

See Plate annexed.

It must be observed in this example, that the sour notes above the trible stave, are called in Alt; and those below the bass stave are called Double; these notes are help'd by additional lines, which are also called Ledger Lines. See LEDGER LINE.

Belides the two Cleffs ahove mentioned, there is also another, called the *Tenor Cleff*, which is used when the *Bass* goes high, to avoid *Ledger Lines*; this (1 ff is generally placed on any of the four lower lines, and sometimes on the fifth, and

is always the middle Cfaut of your instrument.

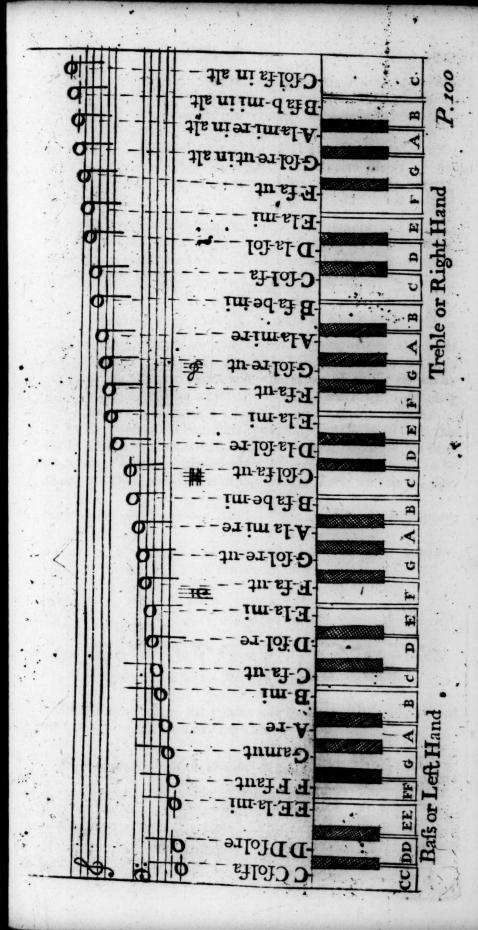
It must be observed, that in the foregoing example of the Gamut, there are twenty-nines white keys, (which is the number contained in many Harpsichords, except those made here of late years; to which they add both above and below, some times to the number of thirty-seven.) There are also twenty black keys, somewhat shorter than the white ones, which are placed between them, and serve for Flats and Sharps \$\delta\beta\$, and \$\delta\delta\$, as the short key that is between A and G serves for both \$G\delta\$ and \$A\delta\$, the short key between A and B serves also for \$A\delta\$ and \$B\delta\$, \$\mathscr{C}c\$, and so on for the rest.

If any note therefore has a Sharp before it, the inward or short key above it must be touched; and if there be a flat before it, the inward key below it; and so on with all the inward keys, which are flats to the plain keys above them, and sharp to those below them. See FLAT

Also observe, that between B and C, and between E and F, there are no inward keys as there are between the others, by reason they have an interval but of semi-tone between them.

As to the notes and characters in music, there are first the notes called the semi-breve, minim, crotchet, quaver, semi-quaver, and demi-semi-quaver, which see. Next are the characters, which are of sharp, slat, and natural: for their sigures and their use in music, see CHARACTER. See also FLAT and SHARP, and NATURAL.

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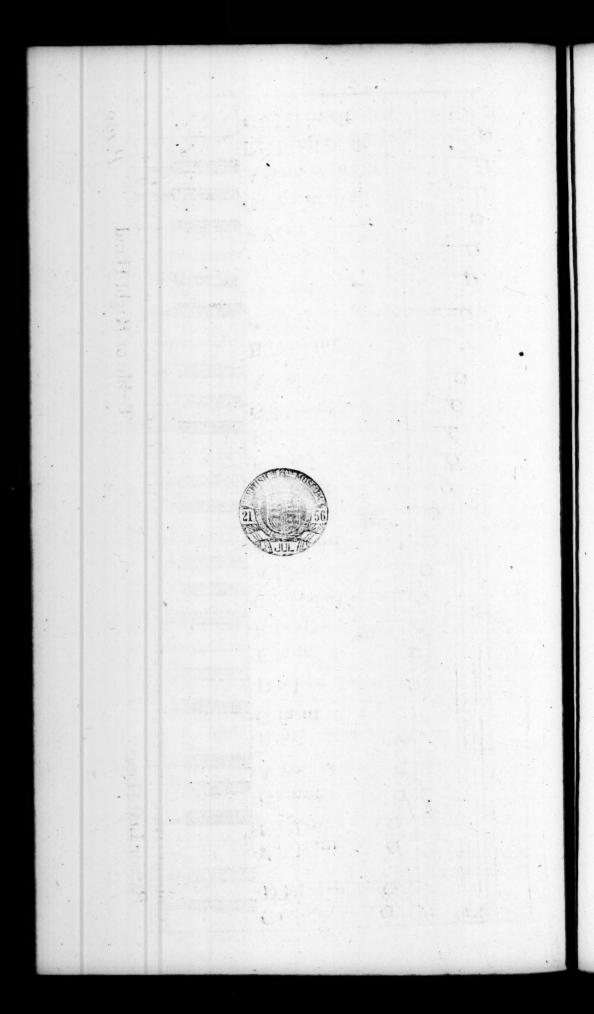
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Next are the rests or pauses, being those used to denote silence, and are of different lengths; as the semi-breve-rest, minim-rest, crotchet-rest, quaver-rest, semi-quaver-rest, and demi-semi-quaver. See CHARACTER.

There are yet other characters used in music, such as directs, which are usually set at the end of a stave, to direct to the

place of the first note of the next stave, as See INDEX.

There are also two forts of bars, viz. single and double; the first serves to divide the time according to its measure, whether common or triple. The double bars are set to divide the strains of songs or tunes.

A Repeat which is thus : S: is used to fignify that such a part of a tune must be play'd over again, from the note it is placed over. It is also signified thus : ||:

Thus are all the notes and characters of music shewn at large, now it will be necessary to say something concerning the time, for which see TIME, COMMON and TRIPLES.

As the notes and characters cannot be altered in fetting the time, but always remain the same in triple or common, in slow or quick; where sometimes the semi-breve is required to be equal to three minims, the minim to three crotchets, &c.

they make use of a dot or point For the semi-breve

naturally contains but two minims, but this point makes it equal to three, and so of the other notes.



In the next place the graces are to be treated of, which according to Mr Lambert are these,

First, a Shake, which is thus marked?





Fourth, A Backfall, thus marked and explained



Fifth, the plain note and shake thus marked and thus explained.

Sixth, The Turn, thus And the Shake,



It must be observed, that the shake is from the note above, and the beat from the note below, and that in fingering, the thumb is counted first, and so on to the little finger, which is the fifth.

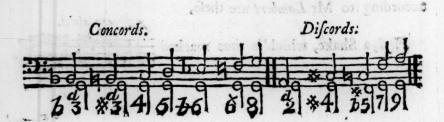
Music consists of Concords, and Discords. See Concords: Concords are either perfect or imperfect, perfect as 4th, 5th, and 8ve, and imperfect as 3d, and 6th. See FIFTH, OCTAVE, &c.

The discords are, the second, Tritone, or superfluous fourth. Flat fifth, seventh and ninth. Altho' the second and ninth are reckon'd the same, their accompanyment are yet different.

The common chords are 3d, 5th, and 8th.

There are two forts of thirds and fixes, flat and fharp.

A flat third contains four femi-tones, and a sharp third five; a flat fixth, nine half notes or semi-tones, and a sharp one ten.



Common chords are to be played on any note, wherein no figure is put, except when you play in a tharp key, the 3d and 7th above the key then naturally require a 6th; but if you play in a flat key, then a 6th is required to the second and seventh above the key, unless otherwise mark'd. See KEY.

All keys are either flat or sharp, not by what flats or sharps are set at the beginning of the tune, but by the third above the key. A b, set over any note, shews that it is to have a flat 3d; and a #, a sharp one, if there be no figure with it.

I might have given my readers rules and examples for playing thorough bass and cransposition, but that would be intruding too much into the Musicians province.

HAUTBOY, or Honor, a fort of musical inflrument

of the wind kind, with a reed to blow or play withal.

The Hoboy is shaped much like the Flute, only that it foreads and widens towards the bottom. The treble is two foot long, the tenor goes a fifth lower when blown open.

It has only eight holes. The bass is five foot long, and has

eleven holes.

The word is French, Haut-bois, q. d. High wood; and is given to this instrument because its tone is louder than that of the Violin.

It is played on much after the manner of the Flute, only

'tis founded thro' a reed.

This instrument is thus held; place the left hand uppermost next your mouth, and the right hand below; and the contrary with left handed people: and there are eight holes on this instrument, two of which are under brass keys, nevertheless seven fingers will be sufficient to supply them; as for example,

Let the fore-finger of the left hand cover the first hole, the second on the second hole, and the third on the next hole, which is a double one. In like manner the fore-finger of the right hand must stop the next hole, which is also a double one; then place the second of the same hand on the next hole, then the third finger on the lowest hole in view, and the little finger will command the two brass keys to open one hole, or shut the other, which is always open. The double holes serve for semitones.

Thus all the holes of the pipe being stopp'd blow somewhat strong; and it will sound distinctly the note C faut, which is the lewest note on the Hautboy.

HAUTCONTRE, the Counter Tenor or Alt. See

HAUTDESSUS, the first Treble. See TREBLE.

HEAD, as of a Lute, &c. is the place where the pins or pegs tre ferewed to flacken and firetch the firings. See Lute, Chord, String, Harpsichord, &c. HEMI,

HEMI, is a word seldom or never sound but in composition with some other word, as Tone, &c. where it signisse half, i. e. where any word is preceded by Hemi, it is thereby diminished of its half, as Tone intimates a whole tone, but Hemitone is but half thereof, and is the same with what we call semi-tone.

HEMITUONO, is a name given by the Italians to one of the intervals of music, by us called a second of a semi-tone; of this there are two kinds, major and minor; the tone is supposed to contain nearly nine commas, which Musicians divide, and make one half contain five commas, and the other but four; that which contains five is the semi-tone major, and that which has but four is the semi-tone minor. See Second.

HEMIOLIA, otherwise SESQUIALTERAL, is a sort of proportion, wherein the larger number contains the smaller once, and a moiety remains as 3:2; 6:4, 6. See Pro-

PORTION.

This name is more especially given to a specis of Triple, wherein all the notes are black, as or the square one contains two times, and the lozenge but one, and two black ones with a tail, (called by us *Crotchets*) are required to make a time equal to what is expressed by the lozenge.

This is called Hemiola maggiore, because in this the meafure is beat flow. See MEASURE and CROTCHET.

And if the note of the greatest value be a black lozenge, it is equal to two times, and our crotchet is half thereof; when this happens the measure is beat quick, and called Hemiolia minore.

But be these notes square or lozenge 'tis not necessary to place any sign of triple time before them, the colour and sigure of them enough distinguish it. And when these notes

come to be white, $\square \diamondsuit$ 'tis not necessary to put a mark

to shew that the measure changes, and that it is in common time. See TRIPLE and PROPORTION.

HEMIOPE, or HEMIOPUS, a musical instrument of the wind kind, used among the ancients. See Music and FLUTE.

It was a kind of Flute or Fistula, with only three holes. See FISTULA.

HEMITONE, in ancient music was what we call half a tone, or semi-tone. See Tone and Semi-tone.

HENNARMONICK. See ENHARMONICK.
HEPTACHORD, is a word compounded of the Greek
ind., feven, and zepth, cord or firing.

In this sense it was applied to the Lyre, when it had but seven strings, and is generally said of any instrument that hath but that number; one of the intervals is also call'd Heptachord, as containing such number of degrees between its extreams. See Seventh.

In the antient Poetry it fignified verses that were sung or play'd on seven chords, i. e. on seven different notes or sounds, and probably on an instrument with seven strings.

See LYRE.

which the moderns call commonly a fixth. See Concord and Sixth.

Guido divided his Scale by Hexachords, and there are seven contained in it, three by B quadro, two by B natural, and two B molle, and 'tis for this reason that he divided his scale into three columns, in which he disposed these Hexachords. See GAMUT.

The Hexachord is two-fold, greater and lefs.

The greater Hexacherd or Sixth, is composed of two greater tones, and two less, and one greater semi-tone, which make five intervals.

The less Hexachord is of two greater tones, one lesser, and two greater semi-tones. See Tone, Semitone, and Comma.

The proportion of the first is 3:5, and that of the other

5: 8. See SIXTH.

HIGH, is fometimes used in the same sense with loud, in opposition to low, and sometimes in the same sense with acute, in contradiction to grave. See SOUND, GRAVITY, and ACUTENESS.

HILARODI, in the ancient music, were a fort of Poets among the *Greeks*, who went about finging little merry diverting poems or fongs, tho' somewhat graver than *Ionic* pieces.

It is compounded of inapos joyful, and with finging or fong; the piece which was fung by these people, was from

them called Hilarodia.

k Ln They were dressed in white, and were crown'd with gold; at first they wore shoes, but afterwards assumed the Crepida, which was only a sole ty'd over the soot with straps. They did not sing alone, but had a little boy or girl to attend them, playing on some instrument. From the streets they were introduced into tragedy, as the Magodi were into Comedy.

They were afterwards called Samodi from Samus, a Poet,

who excelled in this kind of verses,

HOMOPHONI. See Homophonous.

HOMOPHONOUS, is faid of two or more chords, firings, or voices, that are of the fame pitch of tune, and fignifies properly no more than that they are in unifon.

HORN, a fort of musical instrument of the wind kind, chiefly used in hunting, to animate the hunters and the

dogs, and to call the latter together.

The Horn may have all the extent of the Trumpet. See

TRUMPET

The term was antiently to wind a Horn; all Horns being in those times compassed: But since straight Horns are come into fashion, they say, blow a Horn, or sound a Horn.

There are various lessons for the Horn, as the Recheat, double Recheat, royal Recheat, a running or farewell Recheat, &c.

The Hebrews made use of Horns, form'd of Rams Horns,

to proclaim the Jubilee. Whence the name Jubilee.

The French Horn, called in France the Corne de Chasse, is bent into a Circle, and goes two or three times round, growing gradually bigger and wider towards the end, which in some Horns is nine or ten inches over.

To play on it, the first thing is to consider the thickness or thinness of the lips, and provide a mouth piece accordingly; if they are thick, a pretty broad mouth piece is required, but

if thin, the piece must be something smaller.

HYMN, a fong or ode in honour of God; or a poem proper to be fung, composed in honour of some deity. See Song and Ode.

The word comes from the Greek suro, Hymn, formed of

in, celebro, I celebrate.

Isidore remarks, that Hymn is properly a song of joy, sull of the praise of God, by which, according to him, it is distinguished from Threna, which is a mourning song, sull of lamentations.

The Hymns or Odes of the ancients, generally confifted of three stanzas or copulets; the first is called strophe, the second

antistrophe, and the last epode.

St Hilary, bishop of Poitiers, is said to have been the first who composed Hymns to be sung in churches; he was followed by St Ambrose; most of those in the Roman breviary were composed by Prudentius; they have been translated into French by the Messieurs of the Port Royal.

The Te Deum is commonly called an Hymn, though not in verse, as is the Gloria in Excelsis. In the Greek liturgy there are four kinds of Hymns, but then the word is not taken in

the sense of a praise offered in verse, but simply of laud and praise; the angelic Hymn, or Gloria in Excelsis is the first, the Trisagion the second, the Cherubic the third, and the Hymn of Victory and Triumph, last.

HYPATE Hypaton, or Principalis Principalum, a name of one of the chords of the ancient Greek system, which answers to our B natural, of the lowest octave of the organ.

See SYSTEM.

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The ancients likewise gave the name Hypaton to the gravest or lowest of their five tetrachords. See GENUS, SCALE, and TETRACHORD.

HYPATE Meson, signifies the principal of the middle ones; a certain sound in the Græcian scale, answering to the E si mi of the second octave of ours, had this name given to it. See System.

HYPATOIDES, are one of the kinds of founds which Bacchius calls spiffs Gravissimi. See PARHYPATOIDES and LYCHANOIDES.

HYPATON Diatonos. See DIATONOS and Sy-

HY'PER, supra, below. See EPI.

HYPERBOLÆON, Excellentis, Exuperantis, genitive of the Greek adjective Hyperbolæos. The upper or last tetrachord or fourth of the ancient system had this name, by reason of it's being high or shrill in respect of the other fourths; it was conjoint to another below it, called Diezeugmenon. See DIEZEUGMENON and SYSTEM. For Trite, Paranete, and Nete Hyperbolæon, see TRITE, PARANETE, and NETE.

HYPEREOLIC, is the name of one of the ancient Greek modes or tones, whose octave begun at B natural, and would have made a thirteenth mode, if it's octave could have been harmonically divided; i. e. by the fifth and fourth. (See HARMONICAL DIVISION.) But it's fifth was false, and upon this account it was struck off the list of authentic modes, the plagal whereof would have been the Hyperphrygio, then the sourteenth mode, had it's scurth form Fut fa been just. See Mode.

HYPERLYDIO-lastio-Dorio, are names of several modes of the ancient music. See Mode, Tuono, and

Music.

HYPO, infra, believ; this word when joined to the name of any interval or mode, &c. shews that it is lower than it was without, as Hypo diapason an octave lower, Diapente a fifth lower, Diatessaron a fourth, &c. See DIAPASON, DIATESSARON, DIAPENTE, &c.

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This word is by the *Italians* often joined to the name of fome of the modes, and shews that it is a plagal mode, that is, that it's lowest chord is a fourth lower than the final of it's

authentic, as,

HYPODORIO, was the plagal of the doric mode, it's lowest chord was Amila, it's final which divided it's octave arithmetically; i. e. the fourth below, was D la re; it's dominant D la re, or Fut fa; in plain song 'tis the second tone, it is transposed a fourth higher in G re sol by B slat. See Tone.

HYPOEOLIC, is the plagal of the *Eolic* mode, it's lowest chord is *E* fi mi, it's final divides it's octave arithmetically is *A* mi la, it's dominant is either *A* mi la, or *C* fol ut,

and is nearly our third tone.

HYPOIONICO, or *Iastio*, is the plagal of the *Ionic* mode; it's lowest chord is G re fol, it's final G fol ut, a fourth above, it's dominant E si mi, or G fol ut, and is nearly our fifth tone. See Tuono.

HYPOLYDIO, is the plagal of the Lydian mode; it's lowest chord is C fol ut, it's final a fourth higher, is P ut fa,

and it's dominant is A mi la. See LYDIAN.

HYPOMIXOLYDIAN, is the plagal of the Mixolydian mode, whose lowest chord is D la re, it's final G re sol, a fourth above, it's dominant G re sol, or B fa si, and of-

ten C fol ut, it ends on G re fol. See Mode.

HYPOPRHY GIAN, is the plagal of the Phrygian mode; it's lowest chord is B fa si natural, it's final a fourth above is E si mi, it's dominant is E si mi, or G re sol, and sometimes A mi la, (especially in plain song) it ends on E si mi. See Mode and Tuono.

HYPOPROSLAMBANOMENOS, the name of the chord added by Guido Aretine below the Proflambanomenos

of the Gracian scale. See System.

HYPORCHEMATICO Stylo, See Music and STYLE.

the reperture tion the fourteenth mode.

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the manufacture of the state of the second o

LONG BERNERS TARREST

terro P of fir been suff. See Man ..

IM CORPO, Se Carbina. INCONSONANCY, a dilutesallene

JAR, to disagree in sound, to be dissonant, or to go out of tune. See DISCORD.

IASTIO, is a name given by Aristoxenus to one of the modes of the Gracian music, which is otherwise called the Ionic mode. See Mode and Ionico.

JIGG, a fort of brisk and lively air; also an airy kind

of dance to a sprightly measure. See GIGA.

IMITAZZIONE, or Imitation, is a particular way of composition, wherein each part is made to imitate the other.

It is also where one part imitates the singing of another, either through the whole piece, which one of the kinds of sugues or canons, (See CANON) or only during some measures thereof, which is simple Imitation.

Sometimes the motion or figure of the notes is only imitated, and that often by a contrary motion, which makes what they call a retrograde Imitation, or Imitazzione Cancherizante.

Imitation differs from a fugue, says Mr Brossard, in regard in the former, the repetition must be a second, third, sixth, seventh or ninth, either above or below the first voice or guide; to which it may be added, that it may be at any interval; and differs properly from fugue, in that in Imitation, the intervals may not be precisely the same; whereas, were the repetition to an unison, fourth, sisth, or octave, and the intervals exactly the same in the comes and guida, it would be a fugue.

IMMUTABILE Systema. See System.

IMPERFETTO, imperfect, is faid of cadences, confonances, modes, times, or intervals. See each under it's

proper article.

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What we call Imperfect in modes, is when they do not afcend or descend, high or low enough, to take in the full compass of their octaves; an Imperfect interval, as third, fourth, &c. means an interval as well wanting a comma or some small matter of it's just quantity, as having as much above, though the latter is more properly called a redundant, and the former a diminished interval. For Imperfect time, see Common Time, Triple, and Sesqui.

IMPLICATIO. See Usus.

INCONCERTO. See Concerto and Concertante.

IN CORPO. See CANONE.

INCONSONANCY, a disagreeableness in a sound, a discordance.

INDEX, a little mark set at the end of each line of a

tune, thus to shew that the first note of the next line is

in that place; 'tis often called Mostra.

INFINITO, infinite, is faid of such canons or fugues that may be begun again and again, whence they are also called perpetual fugues. See Fugue.

See Hypo. INFRA, beneath.

INGANNO, called by the French tromperie, cheat, a cadence is faid to be in Inganno when, after having done every thing proper for ending it, instead of so doing, they place a mark of filence in the place of the final which the ear naturally expects, but is herein disappointed. See CADENCE.

INHARMONICAL Relation, is when some disfonant found comes where the ear does not expect it, or is offended therewith, much the same as discord. See RELA-

INITIALIS & Pausa generalis. See TEMPO, PRO-LATION, and PAUSE.

INNO, a hymn or spiritual fong. See HYMN.

INPARTITO. See CANONE.

INSPEZZATO Monochordo. See Spissus.

INTENSIO, is the raifing of a voice or found from grave to acute, as Remissio is the contrary. See REMISSIO.

INTERVALLO, Interval, is the difference between two founds in respect of acute and grave: or that imaginary space terminating by two sounds, differing in acuteness and

gravity. See ACUTENESS and GRAVITY.

When two or more founds are compared in this relation, they are either equal or unequal in the degree of tune; fuch as are equal are called unifons, with regard to each other, as having one and the same pitch of tune; the unequal ones being at a diffance from each other, constitute what we call an Interval in music; which is properly a distance of tune, between two founds.

Intervals are distinguished into simple and compound. A fimple Interval, is without parts or divisions. A compound one, confifts of several lesser Intervals.

Common Times,

Table of Intervals, simple and compound.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	THE WEST OF THE	Intervals.	Compound Intervals.
15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 &c	Quadruple		

Those in the upper line mark the simple Intervals, the other three the compound ones, i. e. such as are either dou-

bled, tripled, or quadrupled.

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To reduce a compound Interval to a simple one, Mr. Broffard gives us this rule; from the denominator thereof, says that author, take seven, and the cypher remaining, is the simple interval; as from a thirteenth take seven, there remains six, which shews the thirteenth to be the sixth doubled; again, from twenty six take seven three times, which are twenty one, and sive remains, therefore, says he, the twenty sixth appears to be the fifth quadrupled.

But this distinction, into simple and compound, regards practice only, because there is really no such thing as a least Interval. Besides by a simple Interval, here is not meant the least practised, but such as those it were equal to two or more lesser, which are in use; yet when we would make a sound move so far up and down, we always pass immediately from

one of it's terms to the other.

What is meant by a compound Interval, then will be very plain; it is such whose terms are in practice, taken either in immediate succession, or such where the sound is made to rise and fall from the one to the other, by touching some intermediate degrees; so that the whole becomes a composition of all the Intervals from one extream to the other,

What we now call a fimple Interval, the antients called Diastem; and our compound one they called System. Each of these have differences; even of the simple, there are some greater and some lesser, but they are always discord; but of the compound or system, some are concord, and others discord. Unisons 'tis plain, cannot possibly have any variety; for when there is no difference, as in unisonance, which slows from a relation of equality, 'tis evident there can be no distinction: Unisons therefore are often called concords, (the' they may not properly be so called.) But an Interval depending on a difference of tune, or a relation of inequality, admits of variety; and so the terms of every Interval, accord-

ing

ing to their particular Relation or difference, make either concord or difcord. See CONCORD and DISCORD.

Some indeed, have reftrained the word concord to Interval, making it include a difference of tune: Intervals, 'tis plain, may differ in magnitude, and there may be an infinite variety, according to the possible degrees of tune; for there is no difference so great or so little, but a greater or lesser may possibly be conceived; 'tis true, with regard to practice, there are limits which are the greatest and least Intervals our ears can judge of, and which may actually be produced by voice or instrument.

The degrees of tune are proportional to the number of vibrations of the fonorous body, in a given time; or the velocity of their courses and recourses. Now these differences in tune constitute, as has been already said, the Intervals in music; these therefore must be greater or lesser, as the differences are; and 'tis the quantity of these, which is the

subject of the mathematical part of music.

These Intervals are measured, not in the simple differences or arithmetical ratios of the numbers expressing their vibrations or lengths, but in their geometric ratios. So that the same Interval depends upon the same geometric ratios, and vice versa; it is however to be observed, that in comparing the equality of the Intervals, the ratios expressing them, must be all of one species, otherwise this absurdity would follow, that the same two sounds may make different Intervals.

To describe the particular methods of measuring the inequality of *Intervals* would be too tedious: This one rule may be observed, that to determine in general, which of two or more *Intervals* is greatest; take all the ratios as proper fractions, and the least fraction will be the greatest *Interval*.

The ancients were extreamly divided about the measuring of Intervals. Pythagoras and his followers measured them by the ratios of numbers. They supposed the differences of gravity and acuteness to depend on the different velocities of the motions that cause sound; and thought therefore, that they could only be acurately measured by the ratios of those velocities; which ratios were first investigated by Pythagoras, on occasion of his passing by a smith's shop, and observing a concerd between the sound of the hammers striking on the ancord between the found of the hammers striking on the ancord between the sound of the hammers striking on the ancord between the sound of the hammers striking on the ancord between the sound of the thought reason and mathematics had nothing to do in the case, and that sense was the only judge in the dispute; the other being too subtile to be of any use. He therefore determined the octave, fifth, and fourth, which are the most simple concords, by the ear; and

by

by the difference of the fourth and fifth, he found out the tone, which he fettled as an *Interval* the ear could judge of, he measured every *Interval* by various additions and fubfiractions, made of those mentioned one with another.

Ptolemy keeps a middle way between the two; he finds fault with one for despising reason, and with the other for excluding sense; and shews how these two might mutually affist each other in this matter. See Tone and

TUNE.

Aristoxenus says there are two principal differences in Intervals, the first is that of magnitude, and the other as being concord and discord; for, says he, every concord differs in magnitude from every discord; which may be interpreted, that every Interval is of a different compass or extent from another. As concords and discords, Intervals have many dif-ferences, but of these, says he, magnitude is the principal. But Euclid reckons five differences of Intervals, first in magnitude; second in kind; third, in being either concord or discord; fourth, in being simple or compounded; and lastly, rational or irrational. First then, Intervals differ in magnitude, in which respect some are called minor, such as ditonus, triemitonium, tonus, hemitonium and diesis; others major, as diatesfaron, diapente, and diapason. In the genus or kind Intervals differ, as being either diatonic, chromatic, or enharmonic, i.e. divided as each of these require. As concords and discords they differ, the concords are diatessaron, diapente, diapason, and the like; and all Intervals less than a fourth or diatesfaron, are diffonant, as well as those fituated between the concords. And lastly, they differ as to rational and irrational; rational Intervals are such as we can distinguish by cyphers, as the tone, hemitonium, ditonus, tritone, &c. The irrational, are fuch whose magnitudes vary in an irrational manner, i. e. so that we cannot fix a certain proportion between their two extreams in numbers.

INTRADA, an entry, much the same as prelude, or overture. See PRELUDE and OVERTURE.

IONIC Mode, a light and airy fort of foft and melting

strains. See Mode.

The lowest chord of this mode is C fol ut; it's final the same; it's dominant, which divides it's octave harmonically, (i. e. the fifth below,) is C re fol, it ends on C fol ut; 'tis nearly our fifth tone, and is by some accounted the first natural mode, 'tis often transposed a fourth higher in E ut fa, by E flat.

IRREGOLARE, irregular, or not according to the common and accepted rules. Modes are called irregular when their

their compass or extent is too great, i. e. when they run many degrees both above and below their octaves, or have some other Irregularities: and a cadence is said to be irregular when it does not end upon one of the essential chords of the mode, in which the piece is composed.

ISTESSO, or L'Istesso, the same; as, far l'istesso— do the same thing; cantar l'istesso, — sing the same; istesso suono,—

the same sound, &c.

JULE, a kind of hymn sung by the Greeks, and after them by the Romans in the time of their harvest, in honour of Geres and Bacchus; in order to render those deities propitious.

The word is derived from the Greek on or 18x0, a sheaf,; this hymn was sometimes called the Demitrule or De-

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mitriule, i. e. the Jule of Ceres.

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KEY, a certain fundamental note or tone, to which the whole piece, be it Concerto, Sonata, Cantata. &c. is accommodated, and with which it usually begins, but always ends.

To get an idea of the use of the Key, it may be observed, that as in oration there is a subject, viz. some principal person or thing, to which the discourse is referr'd, and which is always kept in view, that nothing unnatural or foreign to the subject may be brought in; so in every regular piece of music, there is one sound, viz. the Key, which regulates all the rest; the piece begins and ends in this; and this is as it were the musical subject, to which a regard must be had in all the other sounds of the piece.

Again, as in oration there are several distinct articles which refer to different subjects, yet so as they may have a visible connection with the principal subject, which regulates and influences the whole; so in music, there may be various subaltern subjects, that is, various Keys, to which the different parts of the piece may belong; but then they must be all under the influence of the first and principal Key, and have a connection with it.

Now to give a more distinct notion of the Key, we must observe, that the octave contains in it the whole principles of music, both with respect to consonance, or harmony, and succession or melody; and that if the scale be continued to a double octave, there will in that case be seven different orders of the degrees of an octave, proceeding from the seven different letters, with which the terms of the scale are marked. Any given sound therefore, i. e. a sound of any determinate pitch of tune, may be made the Key of the pieces by applying to it the seven patural notes, arising story

any determinate pitch of tune, may be made the Key of the piece, by applying to it the seven natural notes, arising from the division of an octave, and repeating the octave above and below at pleasure. The given note is applied as the principal note or Key of the piece, by making frequent closes or cadences upon it; and in the progress of the melody, no other than those seven natural sounds can be admitted, while the piece continues in that Key; every other sound being foreign to the sundamental or Key: For instance, suppose a song begun on any sound, and carried upwards and downwards by degrees, and harmonical distances, so as never to touch any

founds but what are referrable to that first as a fundamental,

i. e. are the true founds of the natural scale proceeding from the fundamental; and let the melody be so conducted thro' those natural founds, as to close and terminate in the fundamental, or any of its octaves above or below, that note is called the Key of the melody, because it governs all the rest, limitting them so far, as that they must be, to it, in relation of the feven effential founds of an octave; and when any other is brought in, 'tis called going out of the Key; from which this way of speaking, viz. a song continuing or going out of the Key, it may be observed, that the whole octave with all its natural founds, come under the idea of a Key, tho' the fundamental or principal found is in a more particular manner so call'd; in which last sense of the word Key (viz. where it is applied to one fundamental) another found is faid to be out of the Key, when it has not the relation to that fundamental, of any of the natural founds belonging to the concinnous division of the octave.

Here too, it must be added with respect to the two different divisions of the octave; that a sound may belong to the same Key, i. e. have a just musical relation to the same fundamental in the one kind of division, and be out of the Key in respect of the other. Now a piece of music may be carried through several Keys; i.e. it may begin in any one Key, and be led out of that into another, by introducing some sound foreign to the first, and so on to another; but a regular piece of music must not only return to the first Key, but those Keys too must have a particular connection with the first. It may be added, that those other Keys must be some of the natural sounds of

the principal Key, tho' not any of them at pleasure.

As to the distinctions, we have already observ'd, that to constitute any given note or sound, a Key, or sundamental, it must have the seven essential, or natural sounds added to it, out of which, or their octaves, all those of the piece must be taken, while it keeps within the Key; i.e. within the govern-

ment of that fundamental.

"Tis evident therefore, that there are but two different species of Keys, which arise according as we join the greater or lesser third, these being always accompanied with the sixth and seventh of the same species, the third greater: for instance, with the sixth and seventh greater, and the third lesser with sixth and seventh of the same species, that is lesser. And this distinction is express'd, under the name of a sharp Key, which is that with the third greater, &c. and the slat Key, with the third lesser, &c. whence 'tis plain, that how many different closes soever there be in a piece, there can be but two Keys, if we consider the essential difference of Keys; every Key being either

either flat or sharp, and every sharp Key being the same as to melody, as well as a flat one. It must be observed however, that in common practice, the Keys are said to be different, where nothing is considered but the different pitch or tune of the sound on which the different closes are made. In which sense the same piece is said to be in a different Key, according as it begun in different degrees of tune.

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To prevent any confusion which might arise from using the same word in different senses, Mr Malcolm proposes the word Mode to be substituted instead of the word Key, in the former sense; that is, where it expresses the melodious constitutions of the octave, as it consists of seven essential or natural sounds, besides the sundamental; and in regard there are two species of it, he proposes, that with the greater third be called the greater Mode, and that with the lesser third the less Mode, appropriating the word Key to those notes of the piece on which the cadence is made; all of which may be called different Keys, in respect of their different degrees of tune.

To diffinguish then accurately between a Mode and a Key, he gives us this definition, viz. An octave, with all its natural and effential degrees is a Mode, with respect to the constitution or manner of dividing it; but with respect to its place in the scale of music, i. e. the degrees or pitch of tune, it is a Tho' that name is peculiarly applied to the fundamental: Whence it follows, that the fame Mode may be with different Keys, i. e. an octave of founds may be raised in the fame order and kind of degrees, which makes the fame Mode, and yet be begun higher or lower, that is, be taken at different degrees of tune, with respect to the whole, which makes different Keys, and vice verfa, that the same Key may be with different Modee, i. e. the extreams of two octaves may be in the same degree of tune; and the division of them be different. See Modulation, Harmony, Melody, and CLEFF.

KEYS also signify those little pieces in the fore part of an Organ, Spinnet, or Harpsichord, by means whereof the jacks play, so as to strike the strings of the instrument; and wind is given to the pipes by raising and sinking the sucker of the sound board. They are in number twenty-eight, or twenty-nine. In large organs there are several sets of the Keys, some to play the secondary Organ, some for the main body, some for the Trumpet, and some for the ecchoing Trumpet, &c. in some there are but a part that play, and the rest for ornament. There are twenty slits in the large Keys, which make half notes. Mr Baljouski of Douliez, pretends to have invented a new kind of Keys vastly preserable to the common ones,

with which, he fays, he can express sounds which follow each other in a continual geometrical proportion, and fo can furnish all the founds in music, and by consequence all the imaginary intervals and accords; whereas the common Keys do but furnish some of them.

KROUSTA, a term intirely Greek. See STROMEN-

TO.

KYRIE, (sometimes writ by the Italians Chirie) the vocative case of a Greek word, fignifying Lord. Most Masses begin with this word; fometimes 'tis used for a piece of music, as we find, a fine Kyrie, a Kyrie well composed, &c. See MESSA.

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I A, is a syllable, by which Guido denominated the last sound in each Hexachord, if it begins in C it answers to our A, if in G to E; if in F to D; when it is A in our scale, it marks the Proslambanomenos of the first octave, the Mese of the second, and Nete Hyperbolaon of the third octave of the ancient system. See SYSTEM, PROSLAMBANO-MENOS. &c.

LACHRIMOSO, or LAGRIMOSO, signifies, in a wailing plaintive manner. See LANGUIDO.

LAMENTATIONE, fignifies to play or fing in 2 lamenting mournful manner, and therefore pretty flow. See LANGUENTE, languishing and soft.

LANGUIDO, the same as Languente.

LARGE, the greatest measure of musical quantity; one Large containing two longs, one long two breves, and one breve two femi-breves; and fo on in duple proportion. See CHARACTER ..

LARGETTO, fignifies a movement fomething flow,

yet a little quicker than largo. See LARGO.

LARGO, a flow movement, i. e. one degree quicker than grave, and two than adagio. See ADAGIO, GRAVE, and TARDO.

LAUDA Syon Salvatorem. See SEQUENZA.

LEDGER LINE, is that which, when the ascending and descending notes run very high or very low, is added to the staff of five lines; there are sometimes many of these lines both above and below the staff, to the number of four or five.

LEERA Viola, a kind of musical instrument of the firing kind. See LYRE.

LEGABILI. See NOTA.

LEGATA. See NOTA and SYNCOPE.

LEGATO or OBLIGATO. See OBLIGATO.

LEGATO Contrapunto. See COUNTERPOINT and SYN-

LEGATO, confined or constrained by certain rules for some design, thus they say, canone Legato, &c. See CANONE.

Note LEGATO, is when this , or this _ mark is found over or under the heads of them; this is what we call lying them, and is done when they are properly but one note, but obliged to be separated into two, because half is found at the end of one bar, and the other half in the beginning of the following; or because these two halves are in different parts of the measure; this is also called syncope. See Syncope.

Notes of different pitches of tune are frequently tyed together, when there are many for the pronounciation of one fyllable, which is likewise called prolation. See PROLA-

TION.

LEGATURA, a tying or binding together; the Italians often called syncopes Legature, because they are made by the Legature of many notes; but there is another fort of Legature for breves, when there are many on different lines or spaces, which are to be sung to one syllable. See Syncope.

It must here be observed, the breves alone are capable of this species of *Legature*, by reason their figure only will admit of being placed so close together, as to seem one character

only, the placed on different degrees thus unless there

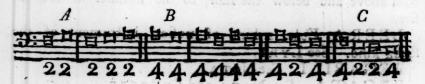
be occasion to place a semi-circle either above or below them, to shew that they are tyed.

This Legature regards common time only.

These breves must again be considered as simple, a having a tail, and as being of different colours.

First then, if they be simple | and ascend, they con-

tain their natural quantity, i. e. each two semi-breves, A. But if descending, they contain sour, if only two sollow one another, B. If there are three or sour sollowing ones, the first and last contains each sour semi-breves, and the middle ones but two, C.



Secondly, if they have tails , and the tail be turned

upwards, the breves contain only one measure, as well ascending as descending. But if it be marked downward, the breve then contains it's natural quantity.

This species of Legature was invented only by reason the minim being round, could not be used therein, and the semi-

circle was not at that time in use,

It may be here remarked, that ordinarily the first breve, alone of every Legature has a tail, and that commonly placed on the left side.

Lastly, If they be of different colours, i. e. if the first be white or open in the middle, and the second black, the first contains a semi-breve, and the second a pointed minim.



These are the principal Legatures, besides which there are many others, for which see Nota.

LEGERMENT, lightly, gently, with care and eafe. LEGGIARDO, or LEGGIARDAMENTE, gayly, lively, brisk. See ALLEGRO.

LENTE, or LENTEMENTE, signifies a slow movement, much the same as largo. See LARGO.

LENTO, the same as lente.

Tres LENTEMENT, fignifies, very flow, or a movement that is between grave and largo.

LEPSIS. See Usus.

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LEVARE Antiphonam, is to begin or open the first note of an anthem.

LEUTO, a musical instrument of the string kind. See Lute.

LIBERO, free, unconfined, the same with sciolto, and contrary to legato. See LEGATO and SCIOLTO.

contrary to legato. See LEGATO and SCIOLTO. LICHANOS, rather LYCHANOS, which fee.

LIDIAN. See LYDIAN.

LIGATURA, more properly LEGATURA. See LEGATURA.

LINEA, Line, is the name of those strokes drawn horizontally on a piece of paper, on and between which, the characters and notes of music are disposed; their number is commonly five, when another is added for one, two, or more notes, it is called a Ledger Line. See Ledger. Some say that it is to Guido Aretine we owe their invention; they are very commodious, and greatly affist the imagination in distinguishing low notes from high ones. Upon their first introduction only the Lines were used, and the spaces were then unregarded.

LIRA. See LYRE.

LITANIA, the litany of the church. See MESSA.

LITTUUS, is a staff used by the Augurs, in the form of a crosser. We frequently see it on medals, with the

other pontifical inftruments. Aulus Gellius fays it was bigger in the place where it was crooked, than elsewhere; some derive the word from the Greek, AND, something that makes a shrill or acute sound, which was the property of this instrument.

LOCRICO, or Locrense, is one of the ancient tones or modes, which Gaudentius the Philosopher, according to Zarlin, called Commune or Hypodorio. See Hypodoric

and Tuono.

LONGA, or LONG, a character of music, contain-

ing four semi-breves, in common time, and consequently eight minims; unless tyed to a breve, for it's content in such case, see Legature.

The Long is usually equal to two breves. See CHARACTER. LUTE, a musical instrument with strings. It had anciently but five rows of strings, but in course of time, four,

five, or fix more have been added.

The Lute consists of four parts, viz. the table, the body or belly, which has nine or ten sides, the neck, which has nine or ten stops or divisions marked with strings, and the head or cross, where the screws for raising and lowering the strings to a proper pitch of tune, are fixed. In the middle of the table, there is a rose or passage for the sound. There is also a bridge that the strings are fastened to, and a piece of ivory between the head and the neck, to which the other extremities of the strings are fitted. In playing, the strings are struck with the right hand, and with the left the stops are pressed.

We call the temperament of the *Lute* the proper alteration that is to be made in the intervals, both with regard to confonance and diffonance, in order to render them more perfect

on this instrument.

Some derive the word from the German Laute, which fignifies the same thing, or from Lauten sonare, to sound; Scaliger and Boebart derive it from the Arabic Allaud.

The Lutes of Boulogne are esteemed the best, on account of the wood, which is said to have an uncommon disposition for producing a sweet sound.

LYCHANOIDES, is the middle found of those

which Bacchius and others call Spiss. See Spissus.

LYCHANOS Hypaton, a Greek term, which fignifies that of the principal notes, which is struck with the fore finger: it was the fourth chord of the Lyre, and answers to the D lare, of the found octave of the modern system. See Lyre and System.

LYCHANOS Meson, that of the middle notes that is struck with the fore finger: it was the seventh chord of the Lyre,

and

and answers to the G re fol of the second octave of the Organ See System and Lyre.

LYDIAN Mode, a doleful and lamenting fort of music, the descant being in slow time. See DESCANT and

MODE, or TUONO.

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The towest chord of this mode was F ut fa, it's dominant which divided it's octave harmonically, was C fol ut, and it's final F ut fa; 'tis our fixth tone: tho' Alypius reckons the Lydian the first mode.

LYRA Viol, a mufical inflrument of the stringed kind; thence comes the expression of playing the Leera way, cor-

ruptly for Lyra way. See LYRE.

LYRE, the same with Cythara, a Harp; a stringed instrument much used among the ancients, said to have been invented by Mercury, on occasion of his finding a dead shell sish (by the Greeks called Chelone, and by the Latins Testudo) lest on the shore after an inundation of the river Nile; of the shell whereof he formed the Lyre, mounting it with seven strings, as Lucian says, and adding a jugum to it, to stretch and slacken them.

Boëtius relates the opinion of some, who say that Mercury's Lyre had but four strings, in imitation of the mundane mufic of the four elements. Diodorus Siculus fays it had but three, in imitation of the three seasons of the year, which were all the Greeks counted, spring, summer, and winter. Nicomachus, Horace, Lucian, and many other ancient authors, make it have feven strings, in imitation of the seven planets. This three, four, or seven stringed instrument Mercury gave to Orpheus, (fays Nicomachus) who being torn to pieces by the Bacchanals, the Lyre was hung up by the Lesbians in Apollo's temple. Others again, fays that author, refer it's invention to Cadmus Agenor's son. Others say that Pythagoras sound it in some temple in Egypt, and added an eighth string. Nicomachus again fays, when Orpheus was killed, his Lyre was cast into the sea, and thrown up at Antissa, a city of Lesbos, whe: 8 the fishers finding it, gave it to Tespander, who carried it into Egypt and called himself the inventor.

Mr Barnes, in his Prolegomena to his edition of Anacreon, has an enquiry into the antiquity and structure of the Lyre; of

which he makes Jubal the first inventor.

For the feveral changes that this inftrument underwent by the addition of new strings, he observes, that according to Diodorus, it had originally but three strings, whence it was called tricordos. Afterwards it had seven, as appears from Homer, Pindar, Horace, Virgil, &c.

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Festus Avienus gives the Lyre of Orpheus nine strings; David mentions an instrument of that sort, strung with ten strings, in Psalterio decca chordo; Timotheus of Milesus, added four to the old seven, which made eleven. Jesephus, in his Jewish Antiquities, makes mention of one with twelve strings, which afterwards were encreased to eighteen. Anacreon himself says, p. 253 of Barnes's Edition, Canto viginti totis chordis. As for the modern Lyre, or Welch Harp, con-

fifting of forty ftrings, 'tis fufficiently known.

When the Lyre had seven strings, they were thus denominated according to Boëtius; the first, says he, was called Hypaton, q. d. major or honorabilior; the second, Parhypate, as being next to Hypate; the third, Lychanos, because struck with the fore singer; the sourth, Mese, by reason of it's seat in the middle; the sisth, Paramese, as being next to the Mese; the sixth, Paranete, from it's situation next to the last called Neate, or Nete, q. d. inserior: In the compass of these seven sounds, were comprehended two sourths, called conjoint fourths, because the same sound Mese was the lowest chord of one, and the highest of the other.

When the number encreased to eight they stood the same, only that one inserted by Samius Lychaon, between Paramese

and Paranete, called Trite. See TRITE.

These seven strings were tuned diatonically. See DIA-

As the seven sounds above made two conjoint fourths, these eight made two disjoint, for from Hypate to Mese was one, and from Paramese to Nete the other; so that between Mese and Paramese there was a tone major, called by Bacchius the

diezeutic tone, because it disjoined those fourths.

Prophrastus added a ninth chord below Hypate, and called it Hyper hypate; Estiachus added a tenth below this, and Timotheus the eleventh; in this state of the Lyre, the names of it's chords were these. Hypate Hypaton, Parhypate Hypaton, Lychanos Hypaton, Hypate Meson, Parhypate Meson, Lychanos Meson, Mese, Paramese, Trite Diezeugmenon, Paranete Diezeugmenon, and Nete Diezeugmenon. From Hypate Hypaton to Hypate Meson, and from Hypate Meson to Mese, were two conjoint fourths; and from Paramese to Nete Diezeugmenon, a disjoint one, that is, separated from the others by the diezeutic tone, between Mese and Paramese. See Conjoint and Diezeutic.

But that the Mese should be situated nearer the middle, and not rise so close to Nete, another sourth was added, called the Hyperbolæon tetrachord above Nete Diezeugmenon, viz. True Hyperbolæon, Paranete Hyperbolæon, and Nete Hyperbolæon, which

which made two conjoint fourths from Paramese; these two notwithstanding, were called disjoint from the other, by reafon of the above-mentioned diezeutic tone.

This was not enough, for still there was seven sounds above and but six below Mese; to remedy which, they added one below Hypate Hypaton, and called it Proslambanomenos, it was a tone major below it, and made an octave to Mese, so that it's chords then stood in the following order.

The names of the chords of the ancient Lyre:

- i Proflambanomenos.
- 2: I Hypate Hypaton.
- 3: 2 Parbypate Hypaton.
- 4: 3 Lychanos Hypaton.
- 5: 1: 4 Hypate Meson.
 - 2 Parhypate Meson.
 - 3 Lychanos Meson.
 - 1:4 Mefe.

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- 2: I Paramese.
- 3: 2 Trite Diezeugmenon.
- 4: 3 Paranete Diezeugmenon.
- 5 : I : 4 Nete Diezeugmenon.
 - 2 Trite Hyperbolæon.
 - 3 Paranete Hyperbolæon.
 - 4 Nete Hyperbolæon.

From Proflambanomenos to Hypate Meson was a fifth; from that to Mese a fourth; from Mese to Paramese a tone major; from Mese to Nete Diezeugmenon, a fifth; and from thence to Nete Hyperbolæon, a fourth; and from Proslambanomenos to Mese was a single octave; to Nete Hyperbolæon a double one. See each of these names under it's proper article, PROSLAMBANOMENOS, OCTAVE, FOURTH, FIFTH, &c.

From the Lyre, which all agree to have been the first instrument of the string kind in Greece, arose an infinite number of others, differing in shape and number of strings, as the Psalterion, Trigon, Sambuca, Pectris, Magadis, Barbiton, Testudo, (the two last are used promiscuously by Horace, with Cythara and Lyra) Epigonium, Simmicium, and Pandoron, which were all struck with the hand or a plectrum, or a little iron rod.

We have no fatisfactory account of their shape, structure, or number of strings; their bare names only, have been by the ancients transmitted to us.

We find indeed numbers of instruments on old medals, but whether they are any of these, we cannot find out.

The Lyre among poets, painters, statuaries, carvers, ingravers, &c. is attributed to Apollo and the Muses.

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MADRIGAL, is a little piece of poetry, the verses whereof are free and easy, usually unequal; it borders on a fonet and an epigram, but has not the briskness of the one or the poignancy of the other; but the thoughts therein are easy and agreeable. Several composers have made fine pieces of music to this fort of verses, even from one to eight parts, the style whereof the Italians call Stylo Madrigalesco. See STYLE.

MADRIGALES CO Stylo. See STYLE.

MAESTOSO, or Maestuoso, intimates to play with grandeur, and consequently slow, but yet with strength and firmness.

MAESTRO di Capella, a master of music. See CA-

MAGADE, or Magas, the name of a musical instrument

used among the ancients.

There were two kinds of Magades: one a stringed instrument; the invention whereof is, by some, ascribed to Sappho; by others, to the Lydians; and by others, to Timotheus Milesus. The other was a kind of Flute which at the same time yielded very high and very low sounds; the former was improved by Timotheus, who is said to have been impeached of a crime, for that by encreasing the number of chords, he spoiled and discredited the ancient music. See FLUTE, FISTULA and LYRE. Magas is also the bridge of any instrument.

MAGGIORE, Major, greater, as a third major means

a greater or sharp third. See THIRD.

MAJOR and Minor, are spoken of impersect concords, which differ from each other by a semi-tone minor. See Concord, MINOR and SEMITONE.

MANICHORD, a mufical inftrument in the form of

a Spinet. See SPINET and CLARICHORD.

It's strings, like those of the Clarichord, are covered with little pieces of cloth, to deaden the sound as well as soften it; whence it is called the dumb Spinet; and is much used in nunneries, by reason the nuns who learn, may play without disturbing the silence of their gloomy cells.

Du Cange derives the word from monochord, from a supposition that this instrument had but one string; but he is much

mistaken, it has fifty or more.

MANNER, a particular way of finging or playing;

which is often expessed by faying he has a good or pretty Manner.

MANIERA Distendente, Quieta, & Restringente. See MUTATION.

MANO Harmonica. See HAND.

MASCHARADA, a Masquerade; this word is applied also to music composed for the gestures of pantomimes, busfoons, mimics, and such grotesque characters. See Music.

MASSIMA is a note or character made in a long square with a tail to it thus ; it contains eight semibreves in common time.

This character is disused in the modern music, for they have found other ways to separate the bars, and to mark the length of notes. See Point, Note of Augmentation, &c.

MASSINO Systema. See System.

MASTER Note, the measure note or key. See MEA-SURE, KEY, DOMINANT, CLEFF.

MAXIMA. See MASSIMA, Modo and TEMPO.

MEAN Proportion, is the second of any three proportions; but in music Mean is more properly said of the tenor or middle parts, as being the Mean between the treble which is the high extream, and the bass or low one. See TREBLE, TENOR and BASS.

MEASURE, is the interval or space of time, which the person, who regulates the time, takes between the raising and letting sall his hand, in order to conduct the movement, sometimes quicker and sometimes slower, according to the music or subject that is to be sung or played. See TIME.

The ordinary common *Measure* is a second or fixtieth part of a minute, which is nearly the space between the beats of the pulse and the heart; the systole or contraction answering to the elevation of the hand, and it's diastole or dilation to the letting it fall.

The Measure usually takes up the space that a pendulum of two foot and a half long imploys in making a swing or vibration. See VIBRATION.

The Measure is regulated according to the different qualities or value of the notes of the piece; by which the time that each note is to take up is expressed. Semibreves, for instance, hold one rise, and one fall, and that is called the whole Measure: The minim one rise or one fall; a crotchet half a rise or half a fall, there being four crotchets in a full Measure. See Note, Semibreve, Minim, &c.

This regards common or binary Measure, wherein the rise and fall of the hand are equal.

Ternary

Ternary or triple Measure is that wherein the fall is double the rise, or è contra; or where two minims are played during a rise and but one in a fall; and vice versa; to this purpose the number three, or \(\frac{3}{8}\) \(\mathcal{E}c.\) are placed at the beginning of the lines when the Measure is intended to be triple, and a semicircle C when it is to be common. For a farther and clearer explanation hereof, see TIME, TRIPLE, PROLATION, POINT, &c.

The rife and falling of the hand the Greeks call apois and Beois;

St Augustin calls it plausus, and the Spaniards compass.

MEDIA. See MESE and SYSTEM.

MEDIANTE, the mediant of a mode, is that chord which is a third higher than the final, or that divides the fifth of every authentic mode into two thirds. See Mode and Third.

MEDIARUM Extenta. See Lychanos Meson. Mediarum Principalis. See Hypate Meson.

MEDIARUM Sub principalis. See PARHYPATE MEson and System.

PROP MEDIA. See PARAMESE and SYSTEM.
MEDIUS Harmonicus. See MEAN and TRIAS.

MELISMATICO Style. See STYLE.

MELODY, is the agreeable effect of different founds ranged and disposed in succession; so that Melody is the effect only of a single voice or instrument, by which it is distinguish-

ed from harmony, though in common speech these two are frequently confounded.

Harmony is the result of the union of two or more concording musical sounds, heard in consonance, i. e. at one and the same time; so that this is the effect of two parts at least; as therefore a continual succession of musical sounds produce Melody, so does a continued combination of those produce harmony. See HARMONY, CONCORD and MUSIC.

Though the term *Melody* is chiefly applicable to the treble, as the treble is chiefly diffinguished by it's air, yet so far as the bass or any other part may be made airy and to sing well, it may be also properly said to be melodious. See TREBLE

and BAss.

Of the harmonical intervals or musical sounds, distinguished by the names of second greater and less, thirds greater and less, fourth, false sifth, fifth, sixth greater and less, and octave, all Melodies as well as harmonies are composed; for the octaves of each of these are but repetitions of the same sounds, and whatever is said of any or all these sounds, the same may be understood also of their octaves. See Octave.

For the rules of Melody. See Composition.

The word comes from the Greek µENI, honey, and Jn, finging.
MELOPOEIA.

MELOPOEIA, is the ranging or disposing founds fo as that their fuccession makes melody: this is sometimes called by the name of modulation. See MODULATION and Music.

MELOPOEIA is divided by Euclid into these four parts, Duclus, Nexus, Petteia and Extentio; Duclus is a progression made from one found to another conjointly, i. s. without missing any degrees, and is threefold. See Duc Tus.

Nexus, is a progression which makes what the Italians call

di Salto. See SALTO.

Petteia, according to this author, is a frequent repetition of

the fame found. But fee PETTEIA.

Extentio, is when any found is held out; and Melopæia, fays he, is the knowledge of these, and of the applying the princi-

ples of harmony.

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Aristides agrees with Euclid in the three first articles, but makes no mention of Extentio; but afterwards makes a very nice distinction of the different kinds of Melopæia; first, fays he, they differ in the genus, and are either Diatonic, Chromatic or Enharmonic; next in system as Hypatoides, Mesoides and Netoides; then in the tone or mode, as Dorian, Phrygian, and Lydian; in manner, as Nomico, Dithyrambico, Tragico, and in what the Italians call Costume, i. e. Mores, in which some are said to be Systaltic, which move grief; others Diastaltic which animate and revive the mind; and others Mediate, because they affect the mind so as not to drive it to an extream See Mores, Hypatoides, &c.

Martianus Capella talks much to the fame purpole; there is little difference between the two but their manner of expression.

This is a branch of the ancient music, of which we have only fome few general hints, which so far from being rules to guide us, are to intricate and obscure as to evade all searchers after

it, and leave them fill in the dark, or

'T was on this in some measure, that those miraculous effects of the ancient music depended, since it regarded the expressing of the various passions of the mind in a proper manner, and well adapting the founds and movement of a piece to the words, which were to be fung to them. As we meet with this often mentioned in ancient authors there is great reason to think that in their time there were some treatises hereon, which since them have been loft, and which had they escaped the wreck of time, or some unlucky accident, might have cleared up many things which are entirely dark, and appear, by perplexity, ain oit improbable.

MELOS, is no more than a fong or piece of melody.

See Song, MELODY and Music,

MEN, left, not formuch. of i ALEOTO

Men forte, nor fo ftrong, or not fo loud.

MEN allegro, a movement not for brisk and lively as Allegro standing alone requires. See ALLEGRO.

MEN Profto, less quick. See PRESTO.

MENUET, or rather Minuet. See MINUET.

MESCOLAMENTO. See Usus.

MESE, the middle, or that is fituated between two extremes equidificant from either. This name was given to one of the chords of the ancient Systema maximum & immutatum, an octave above Proslambanomenos, and is the A mi la of the fecond octave of the modern scale. See Lyre and System.

MEOSIDES. See Usus.

MESON, (the genitive case of a Greek adjective Mesos) that holds the middle place; one of the tetrachords or fourths of the ancient scale was thus denominated, from its place between two others called Hypaton and Synemmenon; it took its first or gravest sound from the Hypaton, and its highest or last from Synemmenon, these therefore are called conjoint tetrachords. See SYNAPHE, TETRACHORD, and GENUS.

MESON Diatonos. See Lychanos Meson, Sy-

STEM, and MEDIA.

MESOPICNI Suoni, any founds that are of a mediate degree or pitch of tune, neither very high nor very low. See SUONI, MESE, and MESON.

MESSA, a particular piece of divine music used in the

Romish church, commonly called the Mass.

There are several kind of Masses, as the Kyrie, and Chrifius, the Gloria, the Credo, the Sanctus, and the Agnus, set to music.

MESSE brevi, a short mass.

MESSE concertate, is a mass wherein the parts recited are intermixed with choruses.

MESSE di Capella, is when all the people fing in chorus : in these various sugues, counter-points, and other ornaments are used.

MESSE per gli defonti, a mass sung for the dead, &c.

METRICA, or METRICE, among the ancients was that part of their music, employ'd about the quantities of fyllables, or which considered them as long and short. See Music.

METRON, Tactus, Mensura, Battuta, — the beating or measuring the time by a motion of the hand or foot. See BATTUTA, and MEASURE.

MEZZA,

MEZZA Paufa, or rather Battuta, half a paufe, intirmates that the part wherein 'tis found must lie still the time of half a breve, if the bar be but a breve, that is, for the time of a semi-breve in common time; if a semi-breve only, the time of a minim, &c. See Pausa and Rest.

Tho' Mezza Pausa, may also fignify what the French call a Demipause, which is a character of silence for half a semibreve, which they call Pause. See CHARACTER and

PAUSE.

MEZZA Tirata. See TIRATA.

MEZZO, fignifies half, and is often found in composition with some other word; as,

MEZZO Soprano, is the haut contre, or high tenor, which has the cleff C fol ut on the second line. See PART

and CLEFF.

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MEZZO Sospiro, is a character shewing that you are to rest the 8th part of a bar in common time, but if the movement be marked 3 or \(\frac{3}{4}, \) a sixth part; if \(\frac{6}{4}, \) a twelsthe part; and so on for other times. In short, says Mr Brossard, it

may be the time of a quaver in any movement whatever.

MI is a syllable used and invented by Guido to express those sounds that were called Hypate Meson, in the first octave of the ancient system, and Nete Diezeugmenon in the second, and answers to E si mi of the organ or modern scale. See System.

MINIM, is a note equal to two crotchets, or half a femi-breve. See TIME and CHARACTER. For fextuple

of a minim, fee SEXTUPLE.

MINOR is applied to certain concords or intervals, which yet differ from others of the same denomination by half a tone, and signifies that they are imperfect. See SE-MI-TONE.

Thus we fay a third Minor, meaning a less third; a fixth

Major and Minor. See SIXTH and THIRD.

Concords that admits of Major and Minor, that is, greater or less, are called imperfect. See Concord.

MINORE, the same with Minor.

MINUET, or MENUET, a kind of dance, the steps whereof are extreamly quick and short, it consists of a Coupé, a high step and a ballance; it begins with a beat, and its motion is triple, 'tis said to have been invented at Poiton.

It has commonly two strains, each play'd twice over, the first has four or eight bars; the last note whereof should be either the dominant or mediant of the Mode, never the final;

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and

and the fecond has eight bars, it usually ends on the final of the Mode, with a pointed minim or whole bar.

MINUS HEXACHORDON. See SIXTH and HEXA-

CHORD.

MISSO LYDIO, the Mixolydian Mede: one of the authentic Modes of the ancients, its lowest chord is Gre fol, its dominant which divides its octave harmonicaly, a fifth higher is D la re, and its final G re fol. 'Tis nearly our 8th tone. See Tuono. This Mode is often transposed a fourth higher in C fol ut by B flat.

MISTO, mixed; is a term given by the ancients to some of their Modes, as well plagal as authentic. See Mode

and AUTHENTIC.

MISTIO. See Usus.
MISSURA. See MEASURE, TRIPLE and Pro-PORTION.

MIXIO. See Usus. 00 al and a to stage

MOBILI Suoni. See Syoni. Those founds which the ancients called Mobiles, were, according to the Greek authors, ten in number, and Alypius particularly fays, that Parhypate Hypaton, Parhypate Meson, Lychanos Hypaton, Lychanos Meson, Trite Synemmenon, Trite Diezeug menon, and Trite Hyperbolaon, and Paranete Synemmenon, Diezeugmenen, and Hyperbolæon, were the Mebiles or moveable founds of the five Tetrachords, and these of consequence were differently situated according to the genus in which they were employ'd. See GENUS.

Now of these some are called Mesopicni, others Oxipicni, others Diatoni. The . Mesopicni are these five, Parhypate Hypaton, Parhypate Meson, Trite Synemmenon, Trite Diezeug-

menon, and Trite Hyperbolaon.

The Oxipical are likewise accounted five, in each of the Genera, as Lychanos Hypaton, Lychanos Meson, Paranete Synommenon, Paranete Diez engmenon, and Parenete Hyperbolaon, only adding the distinction of Enharmonice and Chromatice; for the Diatonic does not participate of the nature of those other two, which with respect to it are called Genera Spissa. See Spissus.

MODE is defined by some authors the particular manner of constituting the octave: or, the melodious constitution of the octave, as it confifts of seven essential and natural sounds,

beside the key, or fundamental. See OCTAVE.

A Mode then is not any fingle note or found, but the particular order of the concinnous degrees of an octave: The fundamental note whereof, may in another sense be called the key, as it fignifies the principal note which regulates the reft.

The

The proper difference between a Mode and a key, confifts in this, that an octave with all its natural and concinnous degrees is called a Mode, with respect to the constitution or manner of dividing it; and with respect to the place of it in the scale of music, that is, the degree and pitch of tune, it is called a key; that is, an octave of sounds may be raised in the same order and kind of degrees, which make the same Mode, and yet be begun higher or lower; that is, be taken at different degrees with respect to the whole, which makes different keys; and from the same definition it follows, that the same key may be found with different Modes; that is, the extremes of two octaves may be in the same degree of tune; and the division of them different. See Key.

Now it may be further observed, that of the natural notes of every *Mode* or octave, three go under the name effential, in a peculiar manner, viz. fundamental, the third, and fifth; their octaves being reckoned the same, and marked with the same letter in the scale: The rest are particularly called

dependants.

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Again, the fundamental is also called the Final; the fifth Dominant, and the third, as being between the other two, the Mediante. The doctrine of the ancients with regard to the Modes, which they sometimes also call tones, is somewhat obscure, there being an unaccountable difference among their authors as to the definitions, divisions, and names of their Modes.

They indeed agree, that a Mode is a certain fystem, or constitution of sounds; and that an octave with all its intermediate sounds is such a constitution; but the specific differences of tones, some place in the manner of division, or order of its concinnous degrees, and others merely in the different tension of the whole, i. e. as the whole notes are acuter or graver, or stand higher or lower in the scale of music.

Ptolemy makes the Modes the same with the species of the Diapason; but at the same time speaks of their being at some distance from each other; some contend for thirteen, some for sisteen Modes, which they place at a semi-tone's distance from each other; but it is plain, those understood the differences to be only in their places or distances from each other, and that there is one certain harmonious species of octave applied to all, viz. that order which proceeds from the Prosambanomenos of the Systema immutatum, or the A of the modern system; Ptolemy argues, that if this be all, they may be infinite, tho' they must be limitted for use and practice. But indeed, much greater part define them by the species of Diapason; and therefore

therefore make only feven Modes; but as to their use we are intirely left in the dark.

Boëtius is also very dark on this head, and defines a Mode to be, as it were, an entire body of modulation, consisting of a

conjunction of Confonances and the Diapason.

If the Modes be nothing but the seven species of the octave, the use of them can only be, that the Proslambanomenos of any Mode being made the principal note of a song, there may be different species of melody answering to those differences of the constitution. But then, we cannot conceive that the Proslambanomenos or sundamental of any Mode is fix'd on any particular chord of the system, v. g. the Phrygian to G; so that we must always begin there when we would have a piece of melody of that species. When we say in general, that such a Mode begins in G, it is no more than to signify the species of octave, as they appear in a certain fixed system, but we may begin on any chord of that system, and make it the Proslambanomenos of any Mode, by adding new chords, or altering the tuning of the old ones.

If this were the nature and use of the tones, most of their Modes must be impersect, and incapable of good melody; as wanting some of those which we reckon the essential and natural notes of a true Mode. Again, if the essential differences of the Modes consists only in the gravity and acuteness of the whole octave, then we may suppose one species or concinnous division of the octave, which being applied to all the chords of the system, make them true sundamentals for a certain series of successive notes, by changing as above, the tones of certain chords in some cases, or by adding new chords to the sy-

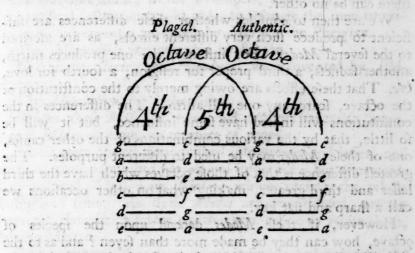
flem.

But that must have been a simple kind of melody, produced by admitting only one concinnous series, and that too wanting

fome useful and necessary chords.

Music was considerably improv'd in the eleventh century, by Guido Aretine, who among other innovations alter'd the doctrine of Modes. It is true they are still defin'd by the species of the octave, in Ptolemy's manner, and their number was fix'd to seven; but afterwards taking occasion to consider the harmonical and arithmetical divisions of the octave, whereby it resolves into a fourth above a fifth, and a fifth above a fourth, they hence constituted twelve Modes, making of each octave two different Modes according to these different divisions.

But because there are two of them that cannot be divided both ways, there are but twelve *Modes*. Of these, such as were divided harmonically, that is, with the fifth lowest (which were were fix) were called authentic; and the other fix, which had the fifth highest we called the plagal Modes. See the Scheme annex'd.



To these Modes they gave the names of the ancient Greek tones, as Dorian, Phrygian, Lydian; but the several authors differ in the application and order of these names. So that we are still in a great measure at a loss to find our what they meant by these distinctions, and what their real use was.

The best account we can give, is this, they consider'd an octave, which wants a fourth or a fifth, as imperfect: these being the concords next to the octave, the song ought to touch those chords most frequently, and remarkably; and because their concord is different which makes the melody different, they establish'd by this two Modes in every natural octave that had a true fourth and fifth: then if the song was carried as far as the octave above, it was called an impersect Mode; if less, as to the south and fifth, it was called an impersect Mode, if it move both above and below, it was a mix'd Mode.

Thus it is some authors speak about these Modes. Others considering how indispensable a chord the sist in every Mode, they took it for the sinal or key note, in the arithmetically divided octaves, not the lowest chord of that octave, but that very sourth. The only difference then in this method, between the plagal and authentic Modes, is, that the authentic goes above it's final to the octave, the other ascends a fifth, and descends a fourth; which will indeed be attended with different effects, but the Mode is essentially the same, having the same final to which all the notes refer.

We are now to confider wherein the Modes of one species differ from themselves, (as authentic or plagal). This must

be either by standing higher or lower in the scale, i. e. by the different tension of the whole octave, or rather by the different subdivisions of the octave into it's concinnous degrees:

there can be no other.

We are then to confider whether these differences are sufficient to produce such very different effects, as are ascribed to the feveral Modes. For instance, the one produces mirth. another fadness, a third proper for religion, a fourth for love, &c. That these effects are owing merely to the constitution of the octave, fcarce any one will afirm. The differences in the constitutions will indeed have some influence, but it will be fo little, that by the various combinations of the other causes, one of these Modes may be used to different purposes. The greatest difference is that of those octaves which have the third leffer and third greater, making what on other occasions we

call a sharp and flat key.

However, if these Mades depend upon the species of octave, how can they be made more than feven? and as to the distinction between authentic and plagal, we have already obferved, that it is imaginary, with respect to any effential difference constituted thereby, in the kind of the melody; for tho' the carrying the fong above or below the final, may have different effects, yet this is to be ascribed to other causes besides the constitution of the octave. It is particularly observable, that those authors who give us examples in actual composition of their twelve Modes, frequently take in the artificial notes sharp and flat, to perfect the melody of their key; and by this means depart from the constitution of the octave, as it stands fixed in the natural system. There is nothing certain or confishent therefore in their way of speaking; but the Modes are all really reducible to two, viz. Tharp and flat, the other differences respect only the places of the scale where the fundamental is taken.

The ancient Modes, beside their general division into authentic and plagal, had also their respective names from the several Greek provinces, where they are supposed to have been invented. Originally indeed, there were but three, viz. Doric, Lydian, and Phrygian; which particularly were called tones, because at a tone's distance from one another; the rest were added afterwards, and were some of them named from the relations they bore to the former, particularly the Hypo-

doric, as being below the Doric.

The Doric Mode was a mixture of gravity and mirth, invented by Thamiras the Thracian. See DORIC.

The Ionic Mode, was fuch as pleasant songs, jiggs, courants, and farabands. See IONIC.

The

The Lydian, adapted to facred hymns and funeral fongs; invented, according to Pliny, by Amphion. See Lydian.

The Phrygian was adapted to the kindling of rage, and was a war-like music, fit for Trumpets, Hautboys, and such like musical instruments; in order to animate the men to military atchievements, invented by Marsyas the Phrygian.

The Mixolidian was invented by Sappho.

The Eolic, Ionic, and Hypodoric, were invented by Phi-

The Hypolydian, by Polymnestes.

Besides these Modes of tune, old authors have also intro-

duced Modes of time, or measure of notes.

These were at first distinguished into greater and lesser, and each of these again into perfect and imperfect; but afterwards they reduced all into four *Modes*, which include the whole business of time. As those *Modes* are now disused, authors have not thought it scarce worth their while to recite them, but see Mode.

The common Mode now in use is simple and natural, the proportions which in theirs varied, is now fixed, as 2:1; a large contains two longs, a long two breves, and so on, proceeding in the same proportion to the least note or character of time. And if on any occasion the proportion of three to one betwixt the successive notes be required, it is easily expressed by annexing a point (.). See TIME and CHARACTER.

The ancients had their Modi melopæia, of which Aristides names these, Dythrambic, Comic, and Tragic, called Modes from their expressing the several motions and affections of the mind. See MELOPOEIA.

MODI, or Tuoni Ecclesiastici, church modes

or tones. See Mode and Tuono.

MODO, TEMPO, PROLATIONE, are terms which the modern ancients used, and which are to be met with in all ancient music; by which they name some of their notes and characters of time, as the large, long, breve, semi-breve, minim, Gr. (For TEMPO and PROLATION, see each in it's place.)

In regard to Modi or Modes then, they are certain perpendicular lines placed after the eleff, to denote the value of the notes, whether they were larges, longs, or breves; of which there were two forts, major and minor, each of which was divided again into perfect and imperfect. The minor modes

respected only the long.

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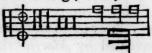
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Modo majore perfetto, was three lines drawn across three spaces, and three others across two only, which shewed the large to contain three longs, thus,



Modo maggiore imperfetto, was two lines across three spaces, and two across only two spaces, which intimated that the large contained eight semi-breves, which is it's usual length in common time, of two times; as



Modo minore perfetto, was only one line drawn across three spaces, to shew that the long contained three breves, as thus,



Modo minore imperfetto, was a line drawn through two spaces, and fixed the value of the long to two breves, as,



Though these characters are disused in modern practice, it is yet necessary they be known, being often sound in the music of about three hundred years old, which was excellent, and which is by many neglected and thrown aside, because they are unacquainted with the characters therein used.

MODULATION, the art of keeping in or changing

the mode or key. See Mode and KEY.

Under this term is comprehended the regular progression of feveral parts, through the sounds that are in the harmony of any particular key, as well as the proceeding naturally and regularly from one key to another.

The rules of Modulation in the first sense, belong to har-

mony and melody. See HARMONY and MELODY.

We shall here only add a word with regard to the rules

of Modulation in the latter sense.

As every piece must have a principal key; and fince the variety so necessary in music to please and entertain, forbids the being confined to one key; and therefore it is not only allowable, but necessary to modulate into, and make cadences on several other keys, having a relation or connection with the principle key: it must be considered what it is that constitutes a connection between the harmony of one key and that

that of another, that it may be hence determined into what keys the harmony may be conducted with propriety. See KEY.

As to the manner in which Modulation from one key to another is performed, so that the transition may he easy and natural, 'tis not easy to fix an precise rules: for tho' it is chiefly performed by the help of the seventh greater of the key, into which the harmony is to be changed, whether it be sharp or flat, yet the manner of doing it, is so various and extensive, as no rules can circumscribe. A general notion of

it may be conceived under the following terms.

The seventh greater, in either sharp or flat key, is the third greater to the fifth of the key, by which the cadence is chiefly performed; and by being only a femi-tone major belowthe key, is thereby the most proper note to lead into it, which it does in the most natural manner imaginable; infomuch that the seventh greater is never heard in any of the part, but the ear expects the key should succeed it; for whether it be used as a third or a fixth, it always affects us with so imperfect a fensation, that it naturally expects something more perfect to follow it, which cannot be more easily and smoothly accomplished, than by the small interval of a semi-tone major, to pass into the perfect harmony of the key. Hence it is, that the transition into any key is best effected by introducing it's feventh greater, which fo naturally leads to it.

MODULI, Campanarum, chimes, a kind of periodical motion, produced at certain feafons of the day, by a particu-

lar apparatus added to a clock.

To calculate numbers for chimes, and to fit and divide the chime-barel, it must be observed, that the barel must be as long in turning round, as you are in finging the tune it is to

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As for the barel, it may be made up of certain bars which run athwart it, with a convenient number of wholes punched in them, to put in the pins that are to draw each hammer; by this means the tune may be changed without changing the barel; such is the Royal Exchange clock in London, and others; in this case, the pins or nuts which draw the hammers, must hang down from the barel some more, some less, and some standing upright in the barel: the reason whereof, is to play the time of the tune rightly; for the distance of each of these bars may be a semi-breve, but the usual way is to have the pins which draw hammers fixed on the barrel.

For the placing of these pins, you may proceed by the way of changes on Bells, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. or rather make

Use of musical notes: when it must be observed, what is the compass of the tune, or how many notes or Bells there are from highest to lowest; accordingly the barel must be divided from end to end.

We speak here as if there were only one hammer to each Bell, that it may the more eafily be apprehended; but when two notes of the same sound come together in a tune, there must be two hammers to the Bell to strike it. So that if in all the tunes you intend to chime of eight notes, there should happen to be such double notes on every Bell; instead of eight you must have fixteen hammers; and accordingly you must divide the barel with the fixteen strokes round it, opposite to each hammer's tail: Then you are to divide it round about, into as many divisions as there are musical bars, semi-breves, minims, &c. in the tune. Thus the hundred pfalm tune has two semi-breves; and therefore on the chime-barel must be a whole division from 5 to 5, as you may understand plainly, if you conceive the furface of a chime-barel, as if the cylindrical superfices of the barel was stretched out at length, or extended on a plane; then such a table so divided, if it were wrapt round the barel, would shew the places where all the pins are to stand in the barel, for the dots running about the table after fuch division, would be the places of the pins that play the tune.

Indeed if the chimes are to be compleat, you ought to have a fet of Bells to the Gamut notes; so as that each Bell having the true sound of fa sol la mi, you may play the tune with it's flats and sharps; nay by this means, you may play the bass and treble with the same barel, and by setting the names of the Bells at the head of your tune, that tune may be easily transferred to the chime barel, without any skill in music: but it must be observed, that each line in music is three notes distant; i. e. there is a note between each line as well as

upon it.

MOLLE fignifies no more than a flat found, i. e. when compared to another that is half a tone higher, therefore called sharp.

Guido's scale was divided into seven hexachords, of which two were by B b, and placed in a column by themselves,

called the column of B Molle.

There is neither flat nor sharp any more than acute and grave absolutely so call'd, they are merely terms of relation; for the same sound may be either flat or sharp grave or acute, according to the other sound it is compar'd with; we say a note is slat because it has something in it sweeter and toster, (as the word Molle intimates) than its sharp. For the characters,

characters, uses, and effects of flats and sharps in music. See FLAT, SHARP, and CHARACTER.

MOLTIPLICE. See PROPORTION.

MONOCHORD, a musical instrument, wherewith to try the variety and proportion of musical sounds. See TUNE.

It is composed of a rule divided and subdivided into divers parts, whereon there is a string pretty well stretched upon two

bridges at each extream thereof.

In the middle, between both, is a moveable bridge, by whose means, in applying it to the different divisions of the line, you find that the sounds are in the same proportion to one another, as the division of the line cut by the bridge were.

The Monochord is called also the harmonical canon, or the canonical rule, because serving to measure the degrees of the gravity and acuteness. See GRAVITY and ACUTENESS.

See also Sound.

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There are also Monochords with forty-eight bridges fixed, the use of all which may be supplied by one single moveable bridge, by only shifting it under new chords or strings, always representing the entire sound or open note.

Pythagoras is held to have invented the Monschord; and Ptolemy examined his harmonical intervals thereby. See Ca-

NON and INTERVAL.

When the chord was divided into equal parts, so that the terms were 1:1, they called them unisons; if 1:2 octave, or diapason; when as 3:2, fifth, or diapante; when 4:3, a fourth, or diatessaron; if as 5:4, ditone, or tierce major; as 6:5, demi-ditone, or tierce minor; lastly, if as 25:24, a semi-tone minor or dieze. See Unison, Octave, Diapason, Diapente, Diatessaron, &c.

The Monochord being thus divided, was properly what they called a fiftem, of which there are many kinds, according to the different divisions of the Monochord. See Sy-

STEM.

Dr Wallis has taught, the division of the Monochord in the Philosophical Transactions, and 'tis as follows; 'Any string fays that author, open and at it's full length, will sound an octave or diapason to that of same string stopped in the middle; hence we give the octave the duple ratio of 1:2, because such is the proportion of the two strings; and upon the same account we allow the fifth the sesqui alter ratio of 3:2; and to a sourth, the sesqui tertian of 4:3; and to the tone, which is the difference of the sourth and fifth, the sesqui oftave ratio of 9:8. And universally, whatever ratio

of length, taken in the same string equally stretched, gives ' fuch and fuch founds, just fuch ratios of gravity we affign the founds fo given. But when an octave is faid in common 'speech to confift of twelve semi-tones or fix tones, this is ' not to be understood according to the utmost rigour of ma-'thematical exactness for fix such tones as that between la and " mi, (called diezeutic) which is the difference of a fourth and fifth in the ratio of 9:8, are somewhat more than an octave, or the ratio of 1:2; and consequently such semi-tone is more than the twelfth part of an octave, but the difference 'is scarcely distinguishable by the ear, whence 'tis usual so to ' speak. And accordingly, when we are directed to take the ' lengths for what are called twelve semi-tones in the geometrical proportion, it is not in utmost strictness, but to be acurate enough for common use; as for placing the frets on the neck of a Viol, &c. wherein greater exactness is not thought necessary; this is convenient, because the change of the key upon altering the place of mi, gives no new ' trouble, but ferves indifferently for any key, and the difference is so small as not to offend. But the more exact proceeds thus, presupposing the ratio of an octave to be 1:2, this is divided into two ratios not just equal, for that would fall on the faid number of $\sqrt{2}$: 1, but nearly equal, so as to be expressed in small numbers; to which end they double the two numbers, and make 4: 2 instead of taking 2: 1, which is the ratio, and enterpose the middle number 3, and of these three numbers, that of 4:3 is a fourth; of 3:2, a fifth, and both together an octave; and their difference, is a tone in the ratio of q: 8, as appears plainly by the ordinary method of multiplying and dividing fractions, i. e. $\frac{4}{3} \times \frac{3}{2} = \frac{4}{2} = \frac{2}{1}$; and $\frac{4}{2} \times \frac{3}{2} = \frac{9}{8}$: Thus in the common scale taking an octave in these notes, la fa sol la mi fa sol la ; sup-' pose from E to e, (placing mi in Bfa bmi, or natural,) the lengths for the extreams la la an octave, are as 1 : 2; then for la la, (in la fa sol la); or mi la, (in mi fa sol la) a fourth, as 4:3, 12:9, or 8:6; those for le mi, (in la fa fol la mi) or la la, (in la mi fa sol la) a fifth, as 3:2, 12:8, 9:6; those for la mi the diezeutic tone, and difference of a fourth and fifth, as 9: 8. Thus we have for these four notes, la la mi la, their proportional lengths in numbers, 12, 9, 8, 6. Then if we proceed in the like manner to divide the fifth, la fa fol la mi, or la mi fa fol la, or the ratio of 3: 2, into two near equals; take double numbers 6: 4, and interposing the middle number 5, of these three, 6, 5, 4 that of 6:5 is the leffer third la mi fa; and that of 5: 4 is the greater third fa fol la; which put together, make a fifth;

6 i. e. $\frac{6}{5} \times \frac{5}{4} = \frac{6}{4} = \frac{3}{2}$; and their difference is as 24:25;

i. e. $\frac{6}{5}$ $\frac{5}{4}$ $\left(\frac{24}{25}$: fo we have for these three notes la fa la,

their proportional length in numbers, as 6, 5, 4: again, if we divide the ditone, or third greater, as fa fol la, in the ratio of 5: 4, or 10: 8, into two near equal, by the middle number 9; then we have these three numbers, 10, 9, 8, that of 10: 9 the lesser tone, and 9: 8 the greater. But whether fa fol shall be made the less, as 10: 9, or fol la the greater, as 0: 8, or this the less as 10: 0, and that the

greater, as 9:8, or this the less, as 10:9, and that the greater, as 9:8, or sometimes this, or sometimes that, as

there is occasion, to avoid what they call a *schism*, is somewhat indifferent; for either way, the compound will be as 5:4, and the difference which is called a comma, as

as 5: 4, and the difference which is called a comma, as 81: 80; $i.e. \frac{9}{8} \times \frac{10}{9} \times \frac{9}{8} = \frac{10}{8} = \frac{5}{4}$, and $\frac{10}{9} \left(\frac{9}{8}\right) \frac{81}{80}$. See

COMMA.

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Lastly, If from that of the less third, la mi fa, whose ratio is 6:5, we take that of a tone la mi, the difference of a fourth or fifth, as 9:8, there remains for the semitone

* mi fa, or la fa, that of 16: 15; i. e. $\frac{9}{8}$ $\frac{6}{5}$ $\frac{48}{45} = \frac{16}{15}$; or

the less third may be divided into three near equals, by tak-

ing triple numbers in the fame ratios 18:15, and interpoling the two mediates 16:17, which therefore will be as

18: 17, 17: 16, and 16: 15; i. e. $\frac{18}{17} \times \frac{16}{16} \times \frac{18}{15} = \frac{6}{15}$

where also the greater tone, whose ratio is as 9: 8, or 18: 16

is divided into it's two near equal, called femi-tones, that of 18: 17, and that of 17: 16; i. e. $\frac{18}{17} \times \frac{17}{16} = \frac{18}{16} = \frac{9}{8}$; and

the less tone, that of 10: 9, or 20: 18, may in like man-

e ner be divided into that of 20:19, and of 19:18; i. &

 $\frac{20}{19} \times \frac{19}{18} = \frac{20}{18} = \frac{10}{9}$; which answers to what is affigned to flats

and sharps: so that by this composition of eight notes, la fa folla mi fa folla, their ratios stand thus; that of la fa, or

mi fa, 16:15; that of fa fol, as 10:9; and of fol la, as 9:8, (or else that of fa fol as 9:8, and fol la as 10:9)

and that of la mi, 9: 8; if either the greater or less tone chance

to be divided into flats or sharps called semi-tones, their ratios are to be such as above-mentioned. But that instrument is now dissied, the modern music not requiring such division.

Again he adds, 'That there may be a like division of the fourth into two near equals, which was really done in the chromatic and enharmonic genera of the Gracians.' See ENHARMONIC.

Monochord is used for any musical instrument confisting of only one string or chord; in this sense, the Trumpet marine may properly be called a Monochord. See TRUMPET and CHORD.

The word is derived from the Greek, word, -folus-fingle; and xof Im, a chord or string. See STRING.

MORÆ, ac convenientie signum. See PUNTO.

MORES, or COSTUME. See COSTUME or Usus.
MOSTRA, the fame with index. See INDEX. Thus marked at the end of a line or space, to shew what place the

first note of the next has

If this first note be accompanied by a #, or flat b, it may be well to place those characters with this Mostra. Also is in thorough bass this first note have any cyphers, it would be of some use to put the same cyphers with the character, at the end of the preceding staff. Again, if the part change it's cleff with that first note, the cleff ought to be marked with the Mostra in the same manner; it is of great use, especially in quick motions, in that it prepares you for what is to come.

MOTETTO, a fort of church music, composed with much art and ingenuity, from one to eight parts, with or without instruments, usually accompanied by a thorough bass.

When the composer gives a lose to his fancy, without confining himself to any rules, subjects, or passions, the Italians call it Fantasia, or Ricercata.

The word is used at large for pieces made to hymns to

faints, &c. and whole pfalms are often thus called.

MOTIVO, Motive, that obliges or induces us to do some particular thing, sollow some intention or design; as Motivo di Cadenza is when the lower part moving the interval of a sisth falling, and a sourth rising alternately (which is the disposition of the notes called atto di cadenza, and which engage us to make a cadence) the parts seem to avoid that natural conclusion; whether by syncopating the seventh in the place of the eighth, or by any other means.

This is of very good effect, especially in fugues.

MOTION,

MOTION, is the manner of beating the measure to hasten or slacken the pronunciation of the words or notes. See MEASURE and TIME.

The Motion in fongs composed in double or common time differs from that of those in triple time. See TRIPLE and

COMMON.

'Tis the Motion that distinguishes Courants and Sarabands, &c. from Gavots, Borees, Chacones, &c. See each under it's

proper article.

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MOTO, or more properly, according to Zarlin, Movimento, is a term that has many fignifications in music; sometimes it means only a motion or passage from one note to another, at whatsoever distance, as a second, third or any other interval; and is the same whether the intermediate degrees (if any there be) be sounded, or only the extreams of them, as the first and last sound of any given interval.

Sometimes it regards the quickness and slowness of such motion, as a brisk, slow, lively or languid motion; and in this fense 'tis used with regard to minuets, gavots, sarabands, &c.

See each in it's proper place. See also Motion.

But the most common, and indeed the most important, acceptation of the word is with respect to harmony, those above described only regarding melody. See MELODY and HARMONY.

With regard to harmony, 'tis the comparing the manner wherein an upper or treble part moves from one found to another, with that wherein a lower or bass part moves; this is to be done three ways.

The first is when the upper and lower part move both the same way, either upwards or downwards, and is called Moto retto.

The second is when in comparing the upper with the lower part, the one ascends while the other descends, or è contra, and this is therefore called Moto contrario.

The last, is when one of the parts holds out, or continues a found, while the other rises or falls on any note whatsoever, this makes what the Italians call Moto obliquo. See OBLIQUO.

MUSICA, MUSICK or MUSIC, the science of sound considered as capable of producing melody or harmony; or the art of disposing and conducting sounds considered as acute and grave; and proportioning them among themselves, and separating them by just intervals pleasing to the sense. See Sound.

Mr Malcolm defines it a science that teaches how sound under certain measures of time and tune, may be produced; and so ordered and disposed as either in consonance (i. a. joint sunding) or succession, or both, they may raise agreeable sensations.

From

From this definition the science naturally divides itself

into two general parts, v. g. speculative and practical.

The first is the knowledge of the materia musica, or how to produce sounds in such relations of time and tune as shall be agreeable in consonance or succession, or both; by which we don't mean the actual production of these sounds by an instrument or voice, but the knowledge of the various relations of tune and time which are the principles out of which the pleasure sought derives. See Tune and Time.

The fecond is how these principles are to be applied, or how sounds in the relation they bear to Music (as those are determined in the first part) may be ordered, and variously put together in succession and consonance, so as to answer the end; and this is what we call the art of composition, which is properly the practical part of Music. See Com-

POSITION.

Some add a third branch, viz. the knowledge of instruments; but as this depends altogether on the first, and is only the application and expression of it, it cannot regularly come under the definition, and consequently is no part or division of the science.

The first branch which is the contemplative part, divides itself into two; the knowledge of the relations and measures of time and the doctrine of time itself. See TIME and

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TRIPLE.

The former is properly what the ancients call Harmonicks, or the doctrine of harmony in founds, as containing an explication of the grounds, with the various measures and degrees of the agreement of founds in respect of their tune. See HARMONICKS.

The latter is that which they call Rythmica, because it treats of the numbers of sounds or notes, with respect to time, containing an explication of the measures of long and short, quick and slow, in the succession of sounds. See RHYTH-MICA.

The fecond part, which is the practical part, as naturally divides itself into two, answering to the parts of the first.

That which answers to harmonicks the antients called Melopoeia, because it contains the rules of making songs, with respect to tune, and harmony of sounds; Mr Malcolm says, we have no reason to think the antients had any such thing as composition in parts; but as they talk of concord and harmony of many sounds heard together, this implies a contradiction.

That which answers to Rhythmica, they called Rhythmopoeia, containing rules for the application of numbers and time. See EHYTHMOPOEIA.

We find a strange diversity in antient writers, as to the na-

ture, office, extent, division, &c. of Music.

The name is supposed originally formed of Musa, Muse; the Muses being supposed to be the inventors thereof; Kercher however, will have it take it's name from an Egyptian word, as supposing it's restauration after the flood to have begun there, by reason of the reeds &c. on the banks of the river Nile. Hesychius tells us, the Athenians gave the name of Music to every art.

What in the proper and limitted sense of the word is called Music, has for it's object motion, considered as under certain regular measures and proportions, by which it affects the

fenses in an agreeable manner.

Now as motion belongs to bodies, and as found is the effect of motion, and cannot be without it, but all motion does not produce found; hence this last branch of *Music* became subdivided.

Where the motion is without found, or as it is only the object of fight, it was either called Musica Orchestria, or Saltitoria, which contains rules for the regular motions of the body in dancing; or Musica Hypocritica, which respects the mo-

tions and gestures of the pantomimes.

When the motion is only perceived by the ear, that is, when found is the object of Mufic, there were three species, viz. Harmonicks, which consider the difference and proportions with respect to acute and grave; Rhythmica, which respects the proportions of sounds as to time, or the swiftness and slowness of their successions; and Metrica, which belongs properly to poets, and respects the art of making verses; and these are the principles which Alypius allows of.

Arifides, Quintilianus, Bacchius, and other antient writers, define Music the knowledge of singing, and things belonging thereto; which they call the motions of the voice and body; as if singing itself consisted only in the different tone of the

voice.

The same authors, considering Music in the largest sense of the word, divide it into contemplative and active; the first, say they, is either natural or artificial. The natural is either arithmetical, because it considers the proportions of numbers, or physical, which examines the order of the things of nature.

The artificial they divide as above, into Harmonicks,

Rhythmica and Metrica.

The active, which is the application of the artificial, is either Enunciative, as in oratory; Organical, or influmental performance; Odical, for the voice and finging of pfalms; Hy-

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pocritical, in the motions of the pantomimes; to which some add Hydraulic, though in reality no more than a species of organical, in which water is used for the producing and mo-

difying of found.

Parphyrius makes another division of Music, taking it in the limitted sense, as having motion both dumb and sonorous for it's objects, and without distinguishing the speculative and practical, he makes it's parts these six, viz. Rhythmica, for the motions in dancing; Metrica, for cadence and recitatives; Organical, for the practice of instruments; Poëtica, for the numbers of seet in verses; Hypocritica, of the gestures of pantomimes; and Harmonica, for singing.

The musical faculties, as they call them, are Melopoeia, which gives rules for the tones of the voice or instrument, and Rhythmopoeia, for motions; as also Poësis, for making

verses.

Music appears to have been one of the most antient arts, and of all others vocal Music must undoubtedly have been the first kind; for man had not only the various tones of his own voice to make his observations on, before any other art or instrument was found out, but had the various strains of birds to give him occasion to improve his own voice, and the modulations of sounds it was capable of.

Of the many antient writers who agree in the conjecture,

we shall only mention Lucretius, who says,

At liquidas avium voces imitarier ore, Ante fuit multo quam levia Carmina Cantu, Concelebrare Homines possent Aurisque juvare.

The first invention of wind instruments he ascribes to the

observation of the winds blowing in hollow reeds.

We might here add another testimony of the antiquity of this art, from the Holy Bible, which says that Jubal the sixth from Adam was the father of such as handle the harp and organ.

As for the other kinds of inftruments, there were formany occasions for cords and strings, that men could not be long in observing their various founds, which might give rise to

stringed instruments. See CHORD.

And for pulsatile inftruments, as Drums and Cymbals, they might rise from the observation of the hollow noise of con-

cave bodies. See DRUM.

Plutarch, in one place, ascribes the invention of Music to the God Apollo, and in another to Amphion, son of Jupiter and Antiope: This last, however, is pretty generally allowed

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to be the first who brought Music into Greece, and to have been the inventor of the Lyra. The time he lived in is not

agreed upon. See LYRE.

To him succeeded Chiron the Demi-God; Demodocus, Hermes Trismegistus, Olympus, Orpheus, who some make the first introducer of Music into Greece, and the inventor of the Lyra; Phenicius Terpander, who was co-temporary with Lycurgus, and set his laws to Music, to him some attribute the first institution of musical modes, and of the Lyre; Thales and Thamyris, who is said to have been the first Inventor of

Mufic without finging.

These were eminent musicians before Homer's time. Others of later date were Lasus Hermionensis, Melnypides, Philoxenus, Timotheus, Phrynnis, Epigonius, Lysander, Simmicus and Dioderus, who were all considerable improvers of Music; Lasus is said to have been the first author who wrote on Music he lived in the time of Darius Hystaspes. Epigonius invented an instrument with forty strings, called Epigonium: Simmicus also invented one with thirty five strings called Simmicium: Diodorus improved the Tibia by adding new holes, and Timotheus the Lyre, by adding a new string; for which he was fined by the Lacedemonians.

As the accounts we have of the inventors of musical inftruments among the antients, are very obscure, so also are the accounts what those instruments were; we scarce know any thing of them besides their names.

The general division of instruments, is into stringed instruments, wind instruments, and those of the pulsatile kind.

Of stringed instruments we hear of the Lyra or Cythara, Psaltery, Trigon, Sambucus, Magade, Barbiton, Pestis, Testudo, Epigonium, Simmicium and Pandoron, which are all struck with the singers or plestra; some of which you will find described under their proper articles.

Of wind instruments, we hear of the Tibia, Fistula, Hydraulic, and other Organs, Tubæ, Cornua and Lituus, besides many others of a more modern date, as Flute, both German and common, Trumpet, French-Horn, Bassoon, Haut-boy,

&c. which see in their places.

Of the pulsatile inftruments, we hear of the Tympanum, Cymbalum, Crepitaculum, Tintinabulum, Crotalum and Systrum. Some of these likewise you will find described under their articles.

Music has been in the highest esteem in all ages, and among all people; nor could authors express their opinions of it strongly enough, but by inculcating that it was used in Heaven, and was one of the principal entertainments of the gods, and the souls of the blessed. The

The effects ascribed to it by the antients, are almost miraculous; by means hereof diseases have been cured, unchastity corrected, seditions quelled, passions raised and calmed, and even madness occasioned.

Athenaus assures us, that antiently all laws divine and civil, exhortations to vertue, the knowledge of divine and human things, lives and actions of illustrious persons, were writ in verse, and publickly sung by a chorus to the sound of instruments; which was found the most effectual means to em-

press morality, and a righ sense of duty on the mind.

Music made a great part of the discipline of the antient Pythagoreans, and was used by them to draw over the mind to laudable actions, and settle in it a passionate love of virtue; it being their doctrine that the soul itself consisted of harmony; and therefore by Music, they pretended to revive the primitive harmony of it's faculties: by their primitive harmony, they meant, that which according to their Dogma, was in

the foul, in it's pre-existent state in Heaven!

Dr Wallis has endeavoured to account for the furprising effects ascribed to the antient Music, and charges them principally on the novelty of the art, and the hyperboles of the antient writers; nor does he doubt but the modern Music, can teris paribus, would produce effects as considerable as that of the antients: The truth is, we can match most of the antient Stories in this kind, in the modern histories; if Timotheus could excite Alexander's fury with the Phrygian found, and footh him into indolence with the Lydian, a more modern mu. fician is faid to have driven Eric king of Denmark into fuch a rage, as to kill his best servants. Dr Newenteit tells us of an Italian, who by varying his Music, from brisk to solemn, and so vice versa, could move the soul, so as to cause distraction and madness. And Dr South has founded his poem called Musica Incantans, on an instance he knew of the same thing. Derham, in his Phyfico-Theology, makes mention of many other things equally furprizing with the instances above recited.

Music, however, is not only found to exert it's force on the affections, but on the parts of the body; witness a Gascon knight mentioned by Mr Boyle, who could not contain his water at the playing of a Bag-pipe: The woman, mentioned by the same author, who would burst into tears at the hearing a certain tune, with which other people were but little affected: To say nothing of the trite story of the Tarantula: We have an instance in the French history of their academy of a musician's being cured of a violent sever by a little concert's being occa-sionally played in his room.

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Nor are our minds and bodies alone affected with founds, but even inanimate bodies. Kercher tells us of a large stone, that would tremble at the sound of a particular pipe in an organ; and Morhoff mentions one Petter, a Dutchman, who could break a rummer glass with the tone of his voice. Mersenne tells us, of a particular part of a pavement, that would shake and tremble as if the earth would open, when the organ play'd. Mr Boyle adds, that the seats will tremble at the sound of organs; that he has selt his hat do so under his hand at certain notes, both of organs, and discourse, and that he was well inform'd that every well-built vault would answer some determinate note.

There is a great dispute among the learned, whether the antients or moderns best understood and practised music; some maintaining, that the ancient art of music, by which such wonderful effects were performed, is quite lost; and others, that the true science of harmony is now arrived to much greater persection, than was known or practised among

the antients.

This point is no other ways to be determined, but by comparing the principles and practice of the one, with those of

the other.

As to the theory or principles of harmonicks, says Mr Malcolm, 'tis certain we understand it better than they did, because we know all they knew, and have improved considerably on their foundation; the great dispute then lies in the

practice.

Were it not that diffenting from those authors, would be thought rashness, much more might be enumerated as reasonable, at least, for as what they alledge against the Grecian practice, or the ancient method in general; if the reader will take the pains to look over that little book, entitled, Vossius de poëmatum cantu, & viribus rhythmi, he will there see the reasons why that celebrated writer accuses the moderns almost of ignorance in this art, with respect to the ancient Greeks.

With regard to the practice, it may be observed, that among the ancients, music in the most limitted sense of the word, included harmony, rhymes, and verse; and consisted of verses sung by one or more voices alternately; or in chorus, sometimes to the sounds of instruments, and sometimes voices

only.

Their musical faculties we have already observed, were Melopoëia, Rhythmopeëia, and Poësis; the first whereof may be considered under two heads, viz. Symphony and Melody.

As to the latter, it contains nothing but what relates to the conduct of a fingle voice, or making what we call Melody.

Nor do they appear to have ever thought of the concert and harmony of parts. This, fays Mr Malcolm, was no part of the ancient practice, but entirely a modern invention; for which we are beholden to Guido Aretine, a Benedictine Fryar. would not however be understood, adds he, to mean that the ancients never joined more voices or instruments than one together in the same symphonies; but they never joined several voices, so as that each had a diffinct and proper melody, which made among them a fuccession of various concords, and were not in every note unifons, or at the fame distance from each other, as octaves, &c.

This last indeed agrees with the general definition of the word symphony; yet 'tis plain, that in such cases there is but one fong, and all the voices perform the fame individual melody. But when the parts differ not by the tension of the whole, but by the different relations of the fucceffive notes, this is the modern art, which requires fo peculiar a genius, and on which account, continues Mr Malcolm, the modern

music has the advantage of that of the antients.

For further satisfaction on this subject, see Kercher, Dr Wallis, Mr Malcolm, and others, who unanimously agree, that after all the pains they have taken to know the true state of the ancient music, they could not find the least occasion to think there was any such thing in their days as music in

parts. See SYMPHONY and SYNAULIA.

The ancient musical writers were very misterious and perplex'd. Boëtius and Gregory the Great first put them into a more easy and obvious method. It was in the year 1204. that Guido Aretine, a Benedictine Fryar of Auretium in Tuscany, first introduced the use of the staff with five lines, on which with the spaces he marked his notes, by setting a point up and down upon them, to denote the rife and fall of the voice; tho' Kercher mentions this artifice to have been in use long before Guido's time. See NOTE and STAFF.

Another contrivance of Guido's was, to apply the fix mufical fyllables, Ut, re, mi, fa, fol, la, which he took out of St John the Baptist's Hymr. See HAND.

Belides his notes of mulic, by which, according to Kercher, he diftinguish'd the tones or modes, and the feats of the femitones; he also invented the scale, and several musical instruments, called Poly plettra, as Spinnets and Harpfichords. See NOTES and GAMUT.

The next confiderable improvement was in the year 1330. when Jean de Muris, Dr of Paris, invented the different figures of notes, which express the times, or lengths of every note, at least their relative proportions to one another, now called

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Longs, Breves, Semi-breves, Crotchets, Quavers, Semi-quavers, and Demi-femi-quavers, which see under their respective Articles.

The most ancient writer of music we have already observed, was Lasus Hermionensis, but his works, as well as those
of many others, as well Greeks as Romans, are lost. Aristoxenus;
disciple of Arstiotle, is the eldest author extant on this subject;
of him Athenaus quotes a passage out of a 4th book, tho' we
have but three, and those impersect; after him came Euclid,
author of the Elements, about 303 years before Christ. Aristides Quantilianus wrote after Cicero's time. Alpins stands
next; after him Gaudentius, the philosopher; Nicomachus,
the Pythagorean; and Bacchius, sen. of which seven Greek
authors we have a fair copy with a translation and notes in
Latin by Meibomius.

Ptolemy, the celebrated mathematician, wrote in Greek the principles of harmony, about the time of the emperor Antonius Pius; this author kept a medium between the Aristoxenians and Pythagoreans; he was succeeded at a good

distance by Manuel Byrennius.

Of the Latins we have Boëtius, who wrote in the time of Theodric the Goth, and one Caffodorus near 505 years after Christ, about the same time Martianus Capella, and St Augustin not far remote.

Of the moderns are Zarlin, Salinas, Vincenzo, Galileo, Doni, Kercher, Mersennus, Paran, De Caux, Perrault, Des Cartes, Holdisworth, Wallis, Malcolm, Holder, Morley, Harris in his

Lexicon, &c.

M U S I C A Antiqua, is the music of the ancient Greeks and Romans, down to the eleventh century, when about the year 1024 Guido Aretine invented or revived music in parts, which may with propriety be call'd Antique moderna; modern with respect to the Greeks, and ancient with regard to us.

Musica Arithmetica, that part of the science which con-

fiders founds by the help of numbers.

Musica Artificiale, mufic that is not performed by the natural organs of the voice, but by inffruments or machines, contrived to imitate it. This again is used in another sense, as when a piece of music is sung in two parts, the one whereof is by B molle or slat, and the other by B sharp or natural; the former of which is term'd artificial, having something particularly soft and sweet in comparison to the sharp.

Musica Attiva or prattica, practical music, or that part which regards only the execution, without considering the

reasons or cause of the good effect of such execution.

Musica Choraica, a fort of music, proper for dancing, consisting of a variety of different motions.

X

Musica,

Musisca Chorale, music sung in a chorus, as in the church, wherein the time of the notes is equal; 'tis otherwise called Musica Piéna, Canto fermo, and plain chant or song.

Musica Chromatica, is a fort of music, in which there are many chromatic signs, as slats and sharps, intervals, &c.

See CHROMATIC.

Musica Combinatoria, that part which teaches the manner of combining the founds; that is, of changing their place and figure in as many different manners as possible.

Musica Contemplativa, or Speculativa, or Theorica, that treats only of the founds, examines their natures, properties,

and effects, having no regard to the executive part.

Musica Diatonica, a particular species of music, the scale whereof proceeds by tones and semi-tones, and which any one, tho unskilled in music, may sing, it being extreamly easy, the chromatic requiring a little knowledge, and the enharmonic the utmost nicety and judgment; it is one of the genera of the antients, and is generally thought to be the first, by reason of its being so natural. Aristides particularly calls it Genus Antiquissimum. See DIATONIC.

Musica Didactica, is part a of the speculative music, which only considers the quantity, the proportions, and dif-

ferent qualities of founds.

Musica Dramatica, Scenica, or Theatrale, is music fit for the Theatres, otherwise called Recitativa. See RECITATI-

Musica Ecclesiastica or musica di Chiesa, is church

music, such as spalms and hymns. See CHIESA.

Musica Enharmonica, is that wherein the Enharmnic Dieses are frequently used, whose intervals are not so spacious as those either of the Chromatic or Diatonic, this is, har Aristides, called Genus Tertium or Supremum. See En-HARMONIC.

Musica Ennunciativa, or Ennarrativa, is much the fame

as Musica Signatoria. See below.

Musica Figuralis, Figurata, or Colorata, figurate music, wherein the notes are of different values, and the motions

various, now flow then quick, &c.

Musica Harmonica, is when the piece confifts of many parts, which though very different when played together, make an agreeable whole; this is what we properly call music in parts.

Musica Historica, which treat of the origin and invention of music, of modes, of notes, instruments, &c. also the lives and writings of celebrated authors on that subject.

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Musica Hyporchematica or Choraica, a fort of music fit for ballads and dancing.

Musica Instrumentalis, that is made on purpose to be

play'd on inftruments.

Musica Manierosa, music that must be under certain circumstances, and requires certain manners to be executed as it ought.

Musica Melismatica, or Melodica, is merely a fong or fingle part, whether for the voice or instrument. See Melody.

MUSICA Melopoëtica is the science or art of ranging and disposing sounds in succession in an agreeable manner, and is in short, the art of making melody. See MELODY and MELOPOEIA.

Musica Mensurata, or Misurata, is a kind of music, whose notes, under the government of certain times, are un-

equal; 'tis the contrary of Musica Piena, or Chorale.

Musica Metabolica, is properly music transposed, as when the piece goes out of its natural mode into a transposed one, the better to express the words, or to distinguish some change in the action, passion, motion, &c.

Musica Metrica, is the harmonious cadence of the voice, heard when any one declaims or repeats verses; or

'tis a fong composed to verses.

Musica Moderna, modern music, may be divided into two parts: first, Antiquo moderna, which is a serious sort of music, consisting of many parts, and which has been in use from Guido's time, to the beginning of the last century; second, the modern which has been used within these 60 or 80 year, and is very different from the Antiquo moderna, being brisk, lighter, gayer, and more sprightly.

Musica Modulatoria, that teaches to compose or modulate, i. e. that fixes rules for the use of Modes, and teaches either to sing or play well. See Mode and Modulation.

Musica Mondana, is the perfect harmony and agreement perceivable between the many parts whereof the uni-

verse is composed.

Musica Naturale, is often opposed to artificiale, and signifies a kind of music or song, formed by the organs of the human voice, unaffisted by instruments, or other artifices; but properly its when the song proceeds in the natural order of the notes without flats or sharps. This may also be called Diatonica, tho' with no great propriety, because the music may either be natural or artificial, and yet diatonic, as proceeding by tones, and semi-tones. See DIATONIC and NATURAL.

Musica Odica is the same with Hyporchematica or

Choraica.

Musica Organica, is meerly what is to be perform'd by inftruments.

Musica Pathetica, is a moving and affecting kind of music, that touches and causes emotions in the mind, either of love, forrow, pity, or any other passion.

Musica Piena, the fame with Chorale.

Musica Poetica, is the art of inventing fongs, of modulating concords and discords together agreeably, and makes what we call composition.

Musica Prattica, the same with Attiva.

Musica Recitativa, Scenica, or Dramatica, a fort of music used in Opera's, &c. irregular as to time, being a declamation in singing, which is to express the passions: and from its being thus irregular in its time, the Italians place the phrase à Tempo giusto when the Recitative ends, and an air, be it minuet, jigg, or any other, begins, to shew that the time is then strictly to be observed.

Musica Rhythmica, the harmony or cadence of the words

in profe; or a fong composed to words in profe.

Musica Scenica, the same with Recitativa.

Musica Signatoria, is the knowledge of the characters, notes, figures, pauses, and all other signs and marks whatever used in music.

Musica Speculativa, the fame with Contemplativa.

Musica Symphoniale, is given by fome to a piece of mufic whose parts are well concerted.

Musica Theatralis, proper for the theatre.

Musica Tragica, a lamenting, mornful fort of music, used in tragedy, and fit for dirges, or funeral anthems.

Musica Vocale, composed for the voice, or vocal music, in opposition to organical or instrumental, that composed for instruments.

MUSICO, a Musician, whether he be a composer, or player; but custom has in some measure restrained the word to the player, rather than composer.

MUTATION, in the ancient music, fignishes the changes or alterations that happen in the order of the sounds

which compose a fong.

Aristoneous says it is, as it were, a kind of passion in the order of the music: The changes, says Euclid, are first

first in the Genera, when the song begins in one, as the Chromatic, and passes into another as Diatonic, called Mutatione per genere by the Italians. Secondly, in the System, as when the song passes out of one tetrachord, at Meson, into another, as Diezeugmenon; or more generally when it passes from a high place in the scale, to a lower, or contrarily, i.e. part of it is sung high, and part low, and this makes what is called Mutatione per Systema.

Thirdly, in the mode or tone, as when a fong begins in one as the Doric, and passes into another, as the Lydian, called Mutatione per Tuono, or modo. Fourthly, in the Melopoëia, that is, when the song changes the very air, so as from gay and sprightly to become soft and languishing, or from a manner that expresses one passion or subject to the expression

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NATURAL, is variously used, sometimes it is taken for diatonic, and sometimes for physical; in which latter sense, Natural music is that produced by Natural Organs, i. e. vocal music, in contradiction to artificial, or that performed on instruments. See Music and Diatonic.

NATUTAL, is also said of a song, the notes whereof move easily and gracefully, giving the performer as little trouble as possible; as when its not carried too high or sunk too low, whereby the voice or instrument is in no wise forced or strained.

NATURAL Harmony, is that produced by the Natural and effential chords of the mode. See Mode and Tuono.

NATURAL Note, is used in opposition to sharp and state notes, which are called artificial. See NOTE and SCALE.

The Natural, is used to contradict those flats and sharps that are set at the beginning of a stave, and in such case, you must take the Natural note, as it is in the Gamut; as if a be were set in B at the beginning of a tune, it causes all the notes of that name to be flat, and if this character, i. e. of Natural, come before some one or more of those notes B, it is used instead of a sharp; but if sharps be set in like manner at the beginning, then it stands as a stat.

NATURALE. See NATURAL. NATURALI Suoni. See Suono.

NEAPOLITANE. See CANZONETTA.

NECESSARIO, necessary, or that must be done, or which cannot be passed over; this word is prefixed to the parts in music, as à doi Violini Necessario, — that must be played by two Violins; Canto necessario, it here signifies much the same as Concertante. See Concertante. Every mode has certain chords, which may be called it's Necessary or essential chords. See Tuono or Modo.

NESSO, Nexus. See Usus.

NETE Diezeugmenon, in the ancient music, was one of chords of the system of the Greeks. See DIAGRAM, SCALE, and System.

It answers to the E si mi of the third octave of the modern system.

The word comes from the Greek, velt and Stagevsus, the last of the separate ones; where is understood the word chord:

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NETE Hyperbolæon, in the ancient music, the name of the highest or most acute of the chords of the ancient diagram. See DIAGRAM. It answers to the A mi la, the sixteenth higher than gamut of the modern scale. See SYSTEM.

NETE Synemmenon, in the ancient music, the highest chord of a tetrachord or fourth in the Greek system, added to make B flat fall between the mese and paramese, or our A and B, which had till then, the interval of a tone major between them.

This chord has the same sound with the Paranete Diezeug-

The word comes from the Greek vels and συνεμμενον, the last of the chords added.

NETOIDES. See Usus.

NOMOS. See Mode.

NON, is an Italian negative, which is often abreviated No; 'tis often joined to troppo, and then fignifies not too much, and diminishes the fignification of the word, as Non troppo presto—not too quick; allegro ma non troppo—quick, but not too quick, &c.

Non Unissoni Suoni. See Suono.

NONA, the ninth, one of the dissonant intervals in music, and is properly the second doubled. When an upper part syncopates, the second is accounted and treated as a ninth; i. e. 'tis resolved by an eighth, and accompanied by a third or fifth, and often a syncopated seventh. But when the lower part syncopates, the second is not thus used, but as a second. See Second. In thorough bass the ninth has always, or at least commonly, an eighth placed thus, 98; to shew that that is resolved by descending to the octave.

NONUPLA, is a quick time, peculiar to jiggs.

This species of time is otherwise called the measure of nine times, which requires two falls of the hand, and one rise;

there are three forts of Nonupla.

The first is Nonupla di semi-minime, or dupla sesqui quarta, thus marked, 2, where nine crotchets are to be in the bar, of which sour make a semi-breve in common time, i. e. in the down stroke six, and but three up; it is usually beat adagio.

The fecond is Nonupla di crome, or sesqui ottava, marked thus 2, wherein nine quavers make a bar, instead of eight in common time; i. e. six down and three up, 'tis beat

presto.

The last is Nonupla di semi crome, or sub super setti partiente sona, thus distinguished io, in which nine semi-quavers are sontained in a bar, whereof sixteen are required therein in

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common time, fix down and three up; 'tis ordinarily beat prestissimo. See ADAGIO, PRESTO, and PRESTISSIMO. Beside these there are two other species of Nonupla, for which see TRIPOLA or TRIPLE.

NOTES in music, are characters which mark the founds; i. e. the elevations and fallings of the voice, and the swiftness

and flowness of it's motions. See Sound.

In general, under Notes are comprehended all the figns of characters used in music. See CHARACTER.

But in propriety the word only implies, the marks which denote the degrees of gravity and acuteness to be given to each found. See GRAVITY and ACUTENESS.

The Greeks used the common letters of their alphabet for musical Notes; and in regard more Notes were added, than they had letters, the defect was supplied by the different situation of the letters, viz. by placing them upright, inverted, &c. by cutting or doubling some stroke.

mode they had eighteen figns.

Now Alypius gives us figns for fifteen different modes, (as may be seen by the curious in Meibomius's translation, and Notes of the seven Greek authors) which, with the differences of the genera, and the distinction between voice and instrument, Mr Malcolm makes 1620 Notes. Not that they had so many different characters, but the same characters had different significations upon different occasions, as φ , or phi, in the diatonic genus, was Lychanos Hypaton of the Lydian mode, and Hypate Meson of the Phrygian, and so of others.

The Latins, in the time of Boëtius, had eased themselves of this needless burden, and only used fifteen letters of their

alphabet for Notes.

Pope Gregory considering that the second octave was in effect the same with the first, and that the order was the same in the upper and lower octave of the gamut, reduced them to seven; which were to be repeated in a different character: at length, in the XIth century, a Benedictine, one Guido Aretine, in lieu of letters, substituted the syllables, Ut re mi fa fol la, placing them in different lines, and making them with points; lastly, it was thought proper to add Notes likewise in the spaces. See GA-MUT.

Of the feven musical Notes, ut re mi fa sol la si, the first fix are ascribed to Guido, who is said to have invented them at Pomposa in the dutchy of Ferrara; the seventh, viz. s. according to some, was added by Uricci Puteaneo, according

to others by Le Maire; the French musicians think it serves very good purposes, in avoiding the difficulty of the divisions remaining in Guido's scale.

Common fame afcribes to Guido not only the Notes, but

also the lines, letters, cleffs, flats and sharps.

The Notes, ut, re, mi, fa, fol, la, he is faid to have taken out of the hymn in the velpers of St John the Baptist; Ut queant

laxis resonare fibris, &c. See Music and HAND.

Hitherto the Notes only served to express the degrees of tune; they were all of equal value as to time, 'till the year 1330 Johannes de Muris Doctor of Paris, gave different figures to the different points, to express the quantity of time

each was to be dwelt upon.

There are three things to be considered in these Notes; first the quantity, i. e. the size and sigure of the head; secondly quality, i. e the colour of the head, whether it be white or black, full or open; thirdly the properties, as the Italians express themselves, v. g. whether the note is accompanied with a virgula, or comma, or not; it must be likewise considered whether the Notes be distinct and separate, or bound together.

The several musical Notes are the large, containing eight semi-breves, tho Mersenne makes it twelve; the long, containing sour; the breve, two; the semi-breve, one; the minim, half a one; the crotchet, a quarter; the quaver, half a quarter; the semi-quaver, one sixteenth; and the demi-semi-quaver, one thirty second part of a semi-breve. See CHARACTER,

for their respective figures.

Usually we distinguish six principal Notes, represented by as many different characters, viz. the semi-breve equal to two minims; the minim equal to two crotchets; the crotchet to two quavers; the quaver equal to two semi-quavers; and the semi-quaver equal to two demi-semi-quavers. See each under it's proper article.

The characters or marks of these Notes are usually set down on a staff of five or fix lines, to serve as directions for keeping time in singing or playing to, or on, any sort of musical

instruments. See SINGING.

Note, or rather Point of augmentation, is the increasing or enlarging the full quantity or value of any Note, as fig-

nifies a chrotchet and a half, and without the dot, which is called the Note of augmentation, it would be only a fingle crotchet.

of division, which was used when any Note was a point of division, which was used when any Note was to be divided into others of less value; and the other was a Note of diminution, which is a dot on the contrary side, and has a quite contrary effect of the point of augmentation; for instead of making it a crotchet and a half, it reduces it to half a crotchet, but both these are now entirely out of use.

The mathematicians compute that one may make feven hundred and twenty changes or varieties, with fix Notes, without ever repeating the same twice; and that of the Notes of each octave, one may make 40320 different tunes or

fongs.

NOTE legato. See LEGATO and SYNCOPE.

Note ferme, a name given by the Italians, to Notes containing one time of a bar in common time, which ferve as a subject for some counterpoint, especially in the plain song or Gregorian chant, which they call Canto fermo. See CONTRAPUNTO.

NOTHO, is properly bastard, illegitimate, produced by irregular means; this epithet was given to two of the ancient modes, viz. the Hyper Eolic and the Hyper Phrygian, the final of the first being B natural, it's fifth above must be false or diminished in a diatonic progression, this mode is therefore rejected from the authentic modes; and the Hyper Phrygian having it's final in Fut fa, and it's fourth above being therefore redundant, is not reckoned among the plagal modes. See Mode, Tuono, Fourth, and Fifth.

NUMERO, Number, of which there are eight, which the Italians call radicale, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and sometimes 10 is added; each of these are frequently met with, especially in thorough basses: 2 marks the second and it's replies; the 3 the third, &c. This character #, is sometimes before and sometimes after the sigure, and shews that it is to be major, greater or sharp; as 3 #, or # 3; and this h, is also used in like manner, as 3 h, or h 3; which intimates that it be minor, less, or slat.

We often find these characters b and # alone withbut a cypher, which shew that the third is to be played, and that major or minor as the character is # or b. See FLAT

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scute found makes precisely two vibrations, while the grave or deeper one, makes one; 10 n herein by confequence, 188 vibrations of the two meet at every vibration of the imore

O. i. e. Majuscule, O, or circle, or double C, or semicircle, is a note called by us a semi-breve, by the Italians Circolo, with which they mark what they call Tempo perfetto, and we Triple time. See TRIPLE.

The ancients indeed used O as a mark of triple time; from a notion that the ternary or number 3, was the most perfect of all numbers, and therefore properly expressed

by a circle, the most perfect of all figures thus, O; or

ising all the timple tones and chores in a reference in the freetacts from it, as they recently to the freetacts of the freetacts of the freetacts.

OBLIGATO, fignifies for, on purpose for, or necessary, as doi violini obligato, on purpose for two Violins; and so of other things, as confogotto obligato, that must be play'd with a Bassoon, &c.

Sometimes it signifies confined or restrained by certain rules, subjected to certain limits or laws, in order to perform some particular thing, to give some particular expression of a passion, action, &c. In this sense we say, Cantrapunto obligato. Fuga obligata. See Legato.

In this sense we also say, the bass is obligato, when it is only a ground of a certain number of bars, which are to be repeated over and over; such is the bass to chacones, &c. and every bass wherein one is obliged to keep a certain movement, and

to perform only certain notes, &c.

OBLIQUO oblique. When the word is joined to Nota, it fignifies two breves tied together, which make but one body, whence 'tis named in Italian Nota d'un corpo solo; fometimes there is a tail, or the right or left fide either ascending or descending. See Note, Legatura and Virgula. However it be, the two extreams mark the sound, the middle

serves only to tie them, as



For Moto oblique,

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OBOE or OBOI, a Hautboy, or Hoboy. See HAUTBOY. OCTAVE, an harmonical interval, confisting of seven degrees or less intervals. See INTERVAL.

The most simple perception that we can have of two sounds, is that of unisons; in regard the vibrations there begin and and together. The next to this is the octave; where the more

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acute found makes precifely two vibrations, while the grave or deeper one, makes one; and wherein by consequence, the vibrations of the two meet at every vibration of the more grave. See TUNE and GRAYITY.

Hence unison and octave pass almost for the same concord.

See Concord and Unison.

Hence also the proportion of the two sounds that form the offave are in numbers, or in lines, as 1:2; so that two chords or strings of the same matter, thickness, and tension, one whereof is double the length of the other, produce the offave. See CHORD.

The oftave is called among the ancient authors the Diapason, because containing all the simple tones and chords; all of which derive their sweetness from it, as they rise more or less directly out of it. See CONCORD.

To be just, it must contain diatonically seven degrees or intervals, and consequently eight terms or sounds; whence it

is called by the name octave.

The oftave containing in itself all the other simple concords, the degrees being the differences of those concords: it is evident, the division of the oftave comprehends the division of all the rest. See System.

By joining therefore all the fimple concords to a common

fundamental we have the following feries.

Fundamental 1
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 $\frac{5}{4}$ $\frac{3}{3}$ $\frac{2}{2}$ $\frac{8}{5}$ $\frac{5}{3}$ $\frac{2}{1}$ 3 d less 3gr. 4th. 5th. 6less 6gr. $8v^e$.

Again, the fystem of the oftave, containing all the original concords, and the compound concords being the sum of the oftave, and some lesser concord; in order to have a series to reach beyond an oftave we must continue them in the same order through a second oftave, as in the first, and so on to a third and sourth oftave. Such a series is called the scale of music. See Music.

The composition of octaves may be carried on infinitely, yet three or four is the greatest length we go in ordinary practice. The old scales went but two, or at most three octaves, which is the full compass of an ordinary voice. When we say that the ancient scales went but two, or at surthest three octaves, we do not mean that they were not allowed to exceed that compass; but that between the extreams of a double or triple octave, were contained all the variety that was possible or needful, for even then, an active musician would take the liberty to surprize them, by running through greater extreams,

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Notwithstanding the perfection of the oftave, yet after the third, the agreement diminishes very fast; nor do they ever go so far at one movement as from one extream to the other of a double or triple oftave; seldom beyond a single one: Nor is either voice or instrument well able to go beyond. To form a fourth oftave, if the acuter string be half a foot long, which is but a small length to render a clear sound, the graver must be eight feet. If then we would go beyond a fourth oftave, either the acute string would be too short, or the grave one too long; not but this inconvenience is re-

medied by a greater tension of each.

The octave is not only the greatest interval of the seven original concords, but the first in persection; as it is the greatest interval, all the lesser concords are contained in it: Indeed, the manner wherein the lesser are found in the octave, is somewhat extraordinary, viz. by taking both an harmonical and arithmetical mean between the extreams of the octave, and then both an arithmetical and harmonical mean between each extream, and the most distant of the two means last found, i. e. between the less extream and the first arithmetical, and between the greatest extream and the first harmonical mean will have all the lesser concords. See Concord, Discord, and Proportion.

Nicomachus, disciple of Pythagoras, says, that to produce an octave, take two chords and stretch the one by a weight of six pounds, and the other by one of twelve, the sound of the last will be an octave to that stretched by the six pound weight, and from thence proceeds to fix the proportion of weights to be used for the production of the other intervals.

Mr Malcolm observes, that any wind instruments being over blown, the found will rise to an octave, and no other concord, which he ascribes to the perfection of the octave,

and its being next to unison.

From the simple and perfect form of the offave arises this peculiar property, that it may be doubled and tripled, and still be concord, i. e. the sum of two or more offaves are concord; though the more compound, gradually, less agreeable. He adds, that there is that agreement between its extreams, that whatever sound is concord to one, is so to the other.

Des Cartes, from an observation of the like kind, viz. that the sound of a whistle or organ pipe will rise to an octave if forcibly blown, concludes that no sound is heard, but its

acute oftave feems some way to eccho in the ear.

The ancient Grecian fystem had no greater compass than a double offave, or fifteenth, which they called Dis Diapason. But in the modern, 'tis tripled, and even quadrupled. See INTERVAL.

Among

Among the ancients, Euclid and Gaudentius the philosopher agree, that there were seven species of octave; the first, fays Euclid, begins from one of the founds called Baripicnis, and has a tone for its highest interval, as from Hypate Hypaton to Paramese, this is the Mixolydian mode. The second a Mesopicnis, whose last or highest interval but one is a tone; as from Parhypate Hypaton, to Trite Diezeugmenon, called the Lydian. The third ab Oxipionis, which has a tone for its third interval at top, as from Lychanos Hypaton to Paranete Diezeugmenon, called the Phrygian. The fourth again a Baripicnis, wherein the tone is the fourth interval from the top, as from Hypate Meson to Nete Diezeugmenon, and this is the The fifth a Mesopicnis, which has a tone for its fifth interval from the top as from Parhypate Mejon to Trite Hyperbolæon, called the Hypolydian. The fixth ab Oxipicnis, wherein the tone is the fixth interval from the top, as from Lychanos Meson to Paranete Hyperbolaon, called the Hypo-Phrygian. And the seventh begins a Baripicais, in which the tone is the first interval below, as from Mese to Nete Hyperboleon, (or from Proflambanomenos to Mese) and is the Hypodorian. Bacchius and Gaudentius speak much to the same purpose; we shall only give the reader one example of the latter, to make the distinction apparent. The first, says he, is from Hypate Hypaton to Paramele, composed of the first species of fourth and fifth, and is the Mixolydian Mode, & e. But Martianus Capella is of another opinion, and fays there are eight species of octave, which he proceeds to enumerate in the following manner: The first is from Proflambanomenos to Mese; the fecond is from Principalis Principalium, i. e. Hypate Hypaton to Paramese, and so on through the eight, but is silent as to the fituation of the tone in those different species. 'Tis discernable enough how he came to reckon eight, fince he counts from Proflambanomenos to Mese one, which the others make the same as from Mese to Nete Hyperbolæon.

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In thorough bass the octave and its replys, are marked by a fimple 8. In melody the voice or found of an inftrument may move an octave per falto, but very feldom two octaves, especially the voice. In harmony two octaves should never follow one another, if differing in degree of tune per falto of a fifth or other interval, but it may be followed by any of the other concords perfect or imperfect. See Con-

CORD, Oc.

OCTAVINA, a kind of small Spinnet, that may eafily be removed, having only one row of keys, and those not to the usual number, perhaps not to above three offaves, the common ones going four or more. Its pitch is taken an octavi HARPSICHORD.

ODE, a fong or composition proper to be sung, and composed for that purpose, the singing is usually accompanied with some musical instrument. See Son G.

It confifts of long and short verses, distinguish'd into stanza's or strophes, wherein the same measure is preserved throughout.

'The odes of the ancients, fays Vossius, had a regular return of the same kind of verse, and the same quantity of syllables in the same place of every similar verse; but there is
nothing, continues he, but consustion of quantity in the
modern odes'; so that to follow the natural quantity of
our syllables, every stanza will be a different song. 'Then
he proceeds, 'The moderns have no regard to the natural
quantity of syllables, and have introduced a barbarous and
unnatural variety of long and short syllables, which they apply, without any regard, to the notes; so that 'tis no wender our vocal music has no effect.' De poëmatum cantu.
See Vocal.

Among the ancients, odes fignified no more than fongs; with us they are different things.

The ancient odes were generally in honour of their Gods, as many of those of *Pindar* and *Horace*; sometimes on other subjects, as these of *Anacreon*, Sappho, &c.

The English odes are generally composed in praise of he-

roes, and great exploits.

The diftinguishing Character of an ode, is sweetness; the poet is to sooth the minds of his readers by the variety of verse, and the delicacy of words, the beauty of numbers, and the description of things most delightful in themselves. Variety of numbers is essential thereto. At first indeed, the verse of the ode was of but one kind, but for the sake of pleasure and music, to which they were sung, they by degrees so varied the numbers and the seet, that their kinds are almost innumerable. One of the most considerable is the *Pindaric*, distinguished by its boldness and the rapidity of its slights.

The ancient ode had originally but one stanza or strophe, but at last was divided into three parts, strophe, antistrophe,

and epode.

The priests going round the altar to sing the praises of the gods, called the first entrance strophe, i. e. turning to the lest; the second turning to the right, they called antistrophe, y. d. returning. Lastly, standing before the altar, they sung the remainder, which they called the epode.

OMNES, a latin term, which we sometimes find for Jutti, all or altogether. See TUTTI and DA CAPELLA.

ONDEGGIARE

ONDEGGIARE, to return the hand beating time, not directly, but by degrees; as Ondeggiando la mano fignifies to keep it wavering in the air, or giving it two motions before 'tis quite lifted up to end the bar, and thence to fall it to beat a first, second or third time of that or another measure.

OPERA, a dramatic composition set to music and sung on a stage, accompanied with musical instruments, and enriched with magnificent dreffings, machines, and other decorations.

The Opera's we derive from the French, they from the Italians; and the Venetians, who hold it as one of the principal

glories of their carnaval, first invented it.

OPPOSITIONE, or rather Opposizzione, is the placing one thing against another, or in a place that does not properly belong to it; this often happens, especially when preparing for a cadence we place the fifth with the fixth thus & per

oppositionem.

ORATORIO, is a fort of spiritual opera full of dialogues, recitativos, duettos, trios, ritornellos, choruses, &c. the subject thereof is usually taken from the scripture, or is the life and actions of some faint, &c. The music for the Oratorio should be in the finest taste, and most chosen strains. The words hereof are often in Latin, sometimes in French and Italian, and among us even in English. These Oratorios are greatly used at Rome in time of Lent; here indeed they are used in no other season.

ORCHESTRA, is a part of the theatre between the fcenes and the audience, wherein the muficians are disposed to play the overture, &c. of a play, be it tragedy or comedy, of

the opera, oratorio, serenata, &c. See OPERA.

ORDINARIO, often, commonly, as Tempo Ordinario, usual time; Signo Ordinario, the ordinary or common fign.

ORDINE, the arrangement of many parts to make a whole one: thus when the Italians speak of the antient systems, they say Ordini di Mercurio, di Terpandro, Philalao, Pythagoras, &c. to fignify the rank in which each of those authors placed their founds, the number thereof limitted by them, and what diftance and proportion they gave them; and they lay of a tetrachord that it is in Ordine di quatro corde, i. e. a whole one, composed of, and divisible by, four chords. See CHORD and TETRACHORD.

ORGAN, the largest and most harmonious wind instru-

See Music.

The invention of the Organ is very ancient, though 'tis agreed that it was very little used till the eighth century. It feems to have been borrowed from the Greeks. Vitruvius describes an Hydraulic one in his tenth book of Architecture.

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The emperor Julian has an epigram in it's praise. St Jerom mentions one with twelve pair of bellows, which might be heard a thousand paces, or a mile; and another at Jerusalem, which might be heard at the Mount of Olives.

There is one in the cathedral of *Ulm* in *Germany* that is ninety three feet high, and twenty eight broad; the biggest pipe is thirteen inches in diameter, and it has fixteen pair of

bellows.

The modern Organ is a buffet, containing feveral rows of

pipes.

The fize of the Organ is generally expressed by the length of it's biggest pipe; thus we say an Organ of thirty two seet, of sixteen, of eight, and of two seet.

Church Organs confift of two parts, viz. the main body, called the great Organ; and the positive, or little Organ, which is a small buffet, commonly placed before the great

Organ.

The Organ has at least one set of keys, when it has only one body, and two or three when it has a positive or chair Organ; though large Organs have four and fometimes five fets of keys; besides which the pedals or largest pipes have their keys, the stops or touches whereof are played by the feet. The keys of an Organ are usually divided into four octaves, viz. the second sub-octave, first sub-octave, middle octave, and first octave. Each octave is divided into twelve stops or frets, whereof the feven black ones mark the natural founds, and the five white the artificial ones, i. e. the sharps and flats; fo that the keys usually contain forty eight stops or Some organists add to this number one or more itops in the third sub-octave as well as in the second. [Note, some Harpsichords and Spinets have their natural stops or keys often marked white, and their artificial ones black.] The pedals have about two or three octaves, at the pleasure of the organist, so that the number of stops or keys is undeterminate.

Each key or stop pressed down opens a valve or plug which corresponds lengthwise with as many holes as there are rows of pipes on the sound-board: The holes of each row are opened and shut by a register or ruler pierced with forty eight holes; by drawing the register the holes of one row are opened, because the holes therein correspond with those of the sound-board, so that by opening a valve the wind brought into the sound-board, by a large pair of bellows, finds a passage into the pipes, which correspond to the open holes of the sound-board; but by pushing the register, the forty eight holes thereof not answering to any of those of the sound-board, that row of pipes answering to the pushed register are shut.

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Whence it follows that by drawing several registers, several rows of pipes are opened; and the same thing happens if the same register correspond to several rows; hence the rows of pipes become either simple or compound; simple, where only one row answers to one register; compound, where several. The organists say a row is compound when several pipes play upon pressing one stop.

The pipes of the Organ are of two kinds; the one with mouths like our Flute, and the other with reeds. The first,

called pipes of mutation, confift,

1st. Of a foot, which is a hollow cone, and which receives the wind that is to found the pipe. 2dly. To this foot is fastened the body of the pipe; between the foot and the body of the pipe is a diaphragm or partition, which has a little long narrow aperture to let out the wind; over this aperture is the mouth, whose upper lip being level cuts the wind as it comes out at

the aperture.

The pipes are of pewter, lead mix'd with a twelfth part of tin, and of wood; those of tin are always open at their extremities; their diameter is very small, their found is very clear and shrill: those of lead mixed are larger; the shortest open, the longest quite stopped; the mean ones partly stopped, and having besides a little ear on each side of the mouth, to be drawn closer or set farther asunder, in order to raise or lower the found. The wooden pipes are made square, and their extremities stopped with a valve or tampion of leather; the found of the wooden and leaden pipes is very foft; the large ones stopped are usually of wood, the small ones of lead; the longest pipes give the gravest sound, and the shortest the most acute; their lengths and widths are made in the reciprocal ratios of their founds; and the divisions regulated by their rule, which they call the diapason; but the pipes that are thut have the length of those that are open, and which yeild the fame found. Usually the longest pipe is sixteen feet; tho' in extraordinary Organs 'tis thirty two: the pedal tubes are always open though made of wood and of lead.

The reed pipe consists of a foot, which carries the wind into the shallot or reed, which is a hollow demi-cylinder, sitted at it's extremity into a kind of mould by a wooden tampion. The shallot is covered with a plate of copper, sitted at it's extremity into the mould by the same wooden tampion: It's other extremity is at liberty; so that the air entring the shallot, makes it tremble and shake against the reed; and the longer that part of the tongue which is at liberty is made, the deeper is the sound. The mould, which serves to fix the shallot or reed, the tongue, the tampion, &c. serves also to stop

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stop the foot of the pipe, and to oblige the wind to go out wholly at the reed. Lastly, in the mould is soldered that part called the tube, whose inward opening is a continuation of the reed; the form of this tube is different, in different ranks of pipes.

The degree of acuteness and gravity in the found of a reed pipe depends on the length of the tongue, and that of the pipe, taken from the extremity of the shallot, to the extremity of

the tube.

The quality of the found depends upon the width of the reed, the tongue and the tube; as also on the thickness of the tongue, the figure of the tube, and the quantity of wind.

To diversify the found of the pipes, they add a valve or

portvent, which lets the wind go in at fits and shakes.

Dr Wallis has endeavoured in the Philisophical Transactions to shew the impersection of the Organ, and whence it arises.

Hydraulic ORGAN, a musical machine that plays by means of water. Of these there are several sorts in Italy in the grot-

toes of vineyards.

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Ctesbes of Alexandria, who lived in the reign of Ptolemy Evergetes, about 3782 year of the world, is said to have first invented Organs that play'd by compressing the air with water, as is still practiced. Archimedes and Vitruvius improved them, and have left us descriptions of the Hydraulic Organ: Felibien de la vie des Archit. And Vossius quotes from them both in his book De Poëmatum Cantu.

In the cabinet of queen Christina is a beautiful and large Medallion of Valentinian; on the reverse whereof is seen one of these Hydraulic Organs, with two men, one on the right, and the other on the left side thereof, seeming to pump the water which plays it; and to listen to the sound of, it: It has only eight pipes placed on a round pedestal; the inscription is PLACEA SPETRI.

ORGANICAL, in the ancient music was that part per-

formed by instruments. See Music.

The Organical comprehends three kinds of instruments, viz. wind instruments, as Trumpets, Flutes, Haut-boys, &c. stringed instruments, as Lutes, Lyres, Violins, Harpsichords, &c. and pulsatile instruments, or those played by beating with the hands or sticks, as Drums, &c. See each under it's proper article, TRUMPET, FLUTE, LUTE, DRUM, &c.

ORGANO, fignifies the thorough bass. It is usually scored with figures over the notes for the Hapsichord, Bass-

Viol and Lute.

ORGANO picciolo, a chamber or little Organ, used to play in a small room, about two or three foot high, i. e. it's longest pipe is that length, made in a small buffet like the positive or little Organ of a church organ.

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OSCURO

OSCURO or Ofcurato is faid of a note when the head thereof is black or obscure, as in opposition to See Hemiolia.

OSSERVANZA, con Oservanza, with care, exactly, truly, &c. See Con.

OSTINATO or Contrapunto offinato, is much the same

with Perfidiato. See PERFIDIA.

OTACOUSTICS, is a term taken from the Greek, applied to instruments that add to, or increase the sense of hearing. See Hearing TRUMPET.

OTTAVA. See OCTAVE, being the fame.

Sefqui OTTAVA. See EPOGDOO, SESQUI and TRIPLE.

OTTINA. See TRIPOLA or TRIPLE.

OTTUPLA, Octuple, or the measure of four times;

'tis marked with a semi-circle C, and sometimes thus when the bar when a bar. But it often happens in the Italian music, that suddenly instead of two quavers for every time of the bar, three are required, this is called Dodecupla. 'Tis enough to place a 3 over three quavers or notes of equal value, to shew the measure must be changed, and when this 3 is omitted, it sufficiently demonstrates the measure to be Ostupla again; and this makes what is called by the Italians Ottupla e Dodecupla. See TIME, DODECUPLA, and TRIPLE.



Ottupla. Dodecupla.

Corelli in the last movement of his 10 sonata, opera terza, very often uses an 8 after the dodecuple, to shew that the triple there becomes common time.

OVERTURE, or Ouverture, opening or preluding; a term used for the solemnities at the beginning of an act or ceremony, as of an opera, tragedy, comedy, concert of music, &c. See Concert.

The Overture of the theatre in France is a piece of music which has usually a sugue in the second movement. See Fugue.

OXIPICNI Suoni, in general are high founds, but in particular the highest of any three notes that are to one another as C to C sharp and D are thus called; the lowest are called the Baripicni, and those in the middle Mesopicni. See BARIPICNI and MESOPICNI.

In the Italian music, frequently fignifies piano, which is what we called foft, i. e. where the force of the voice or instrument is to be diminished, so as to make a kind of eccho, whence the word eccho is often used for Piano. See PIANO.

P Æ AN, a hymn in honour of Apalla or some other of the gods, chiefly used on occasion of victory and triumph.

See HYMN.

Festus derives the word from and to wais, ferio, - to smite, shoot; but Hesychius rather takes Apollo to have been thus denominated from wais Sepanéro, -I heal, in allusion to his being

the deity of medicine.

The Pæan took it's name from Apollo himself, occasioned by his mother's crying out to him when he encountred Python the serpent, in wai, in wai, — do boy, bravely boy. It was also a foot in poetry thus called, as proper to the hymn Pæan; though Quintilian derives the word from it's inventor Pæon a Physician; it confists of four syllables, one long and three short.

PAGINA, a Page, the fame as carta. See CARTA. PP, fignifies piu piano, — more foft, or a fecond eccho

more remote than was performed for piano alone.

PPP, fignify pianiffimo, — foftest of all, or a third eccho, the voice or found being here as it were quite lost in air. See PIANISSIMO.

PANDORON, a musical instrument of the stringed kind, used among the ancients, resembling a Lute. See

LUTE.

It had the same number of strings, but they were of brass,

and confequently gave a stronger found.

It's frets are of copper, like those of the Cistrum; it's back flat like that of a Guittar, and the rims of it's table like those of it's ribs, cut into semi-circles.

Du Cange observes, that Varro, Isidore, and others of the an-

cients, mention it as only having three strings.

The word, according to some, is formed of the Greek way, and Sopov, i. e. all gifts, or all forts of gifts. Isidore derives it's name from it's inventor Pandorus. Others from Pan, to whom they attribute it's invention, as well as that of the Flute. See FLUTE.

PARA, prope, near; this word is added to the name of feveral chords of the ancient system. See System.

PARA

PARAFONI Suoni. See Suono.

PARAMESE, in the ancient music, the ninth string of chord in their diagram or scale. See Music, Diagram,

and SYSTEM.

The word is Greek, and fignifies juxta medium, — near, or next the middle; it's place or fituation in the first state of mufic, being next to the middle or Mese chord. See CHORD, LYRA, and STRING. It answers to Bsa bmi , in our second octave.

PARANETE, the found of the fixth string, fo called

by reason it was next to the last. See Lyre.

PARANETE Diezeugmenon, the last but one of the separate or disjoined chords: one of the sounds of the ancient Greek scale had this name, and is the D la re of the third offere of our scale.

PARANETE Hyperbolæon, is the last but one of the high chords of the ancient system, and answers to the G re sol of

our third octave.

PARANETE Synemmenon, the last but one of those chords added in order to make a sound fall between Mese and Paramese, which were distant a tone major, which should divide that same into two semi-tones, the one major, the other minor, and is our C sol ut by B stat of the third octave.

PARHYPATE Hypaton, near the first of the principal ones; is a name given by the ancients, to one of their sounds which answers to the C fol ut of the second octave of

the Organ. See SYSTEM and LYRE.

PARHYPATE Meson, near the middle ones, was the name of the fixth chord of the ancient system, and is the Fut sa of the second octave of the modern scale. See SYSTEM and LYRE.

PARHYPATOIDES, are the highest of those founds, called by Aristides, &c. Spiss. See Spissus.

PAROLA, a word which answers to some particular

note of a piece of music.

PART, a piece of the score or partition wrote by itself for the convenience of the musicians; or it is one or more of the successions of sounds which makes the harmony, wrote apart. See PARTITION.

Or the Parts are the founds made by feveral persons sing-

ing or playing in concert. See CONCERT.

Music in Parts, most writers seem to agree was unknown to the ancients; they had but one Part, all their harmony consisted in the succession of sounds or notes, none in confonance. See Music and Symphony.

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There are four principal Parts in music; treble, tenor, counter tenor, and bass. See each in its proper place.

Some compare the four parts in music to the four elements; the bass represents the earth, the tenor the water, the

counter tenor the air, and the treble fire.

PARTE Superiore, is every part that is not the foundation of harmony, but, fays Mr Broffard, accidental thereto; or it is any part that is higher than another, with which 'tis compared.

PARTE Inferiore, is every part in which the fong ferves as a bass, or is the foundation of harmony; thus the tenor, counter tenor, or bass, may be called *inferior Parts*, provided there be a treble or higher part.

PARTICIPATION. 3 See System and

TEMPERAMENT.

In PARTITO. See CANONE.

PARTITION, the disposition of the several parts of a song set on the same leaf, so as upon the uppermost range of lines are sound the treble notes; in another those of the bass; in another, the tenor, and so on, that they may be sung or played jointly or separately commonly called the score. See Part, Music, Treble, &c.

PART organical. See ORGANICAL.

PASSACAGLIO, is properly no more than a chacone. See CHACONE. The only difference between them is, that the movement of this is somewhat graver, the tune foster, and the expression less lively: they are for the most part in the less modes or stat keys; wherein the third from its final is stat.

PASSAGE or or PASSAGIO, a portion of an air or tune confisting of several little notes, as quavers, semi-quavers, and last, one, two or three measures at most; thus what the Italians call Contrapunto d'un sol Passo, is a succession of sounds in the beginning of a song, consisting of one, two or three bars, which is to be imitated in other places; not with the same strings or tones, but only observing the same number, motion, and sigure, as in the notes of the first passage, which says Mr Brossard, makes one of the kinds of contrapunto persidiato. See Perficial.

PASSEPIED, an air in all respects very like a minuet, except that 'tis more brisk and lively. See MINUET.

PASSIONATO, to play paffionately, in a moving

affecting manner.

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PASTORAL, an air composed after a very sweet, easy, gentle manner, in imitation of those airs the shepherds are supposed to play.

PATHE-

PATHETICA, pathetic, moving, affecting, expreffive, &c. fignifies to play in such a manner as to move pity, compassion, anger, and other passions, acting in the soul of man.

The Chromatic genus with its femi-tones major and minor, as well afcending as descending, it's redundancies, diminutions, and variety of motions, is most proper for this way of playing: but this must be understood to be better for this purpose than the Diatonic, and we have good reason to think, that could we reach the Enharmonic genus of the ancients, we should be better able to raise certain affections.

PAVAN or PAVANE, a grave and majestic Spanish dance; wherein the dancers turn round, and make a wheel or tail before each other, like that of a peacock, whence it's

name.

The Pavan was anciently in great repute, and was danced by gentlemen with cap and fword, by those of the long robe in their gowns, by princes with their mantles, and by ladies with their gown tails trailing after them, as some wear them now.

It was called the grand Ball, from the folemnity where-

with it was performed.

To moderate its gravity, it was usual to introduce several flourishes, as passades, capers, &c. by way of episodes. The tune thereof is the slowest and gravest part of instrumental music, generally consisting of three strains.

It's tublature on the score is given us at large by Thoinot

Arbeau in his Orchefographia.

PAUS A generalis. See POINT and CORONA.

PAUSA initialis. See Modo, TEMPO, and PROLA-

PAUSE a character of filence and repose, called by some mute figure, because it shews that some of the parts are to be silent, while the others continue the song, either for the sake of some sugue or imitation, to give a breathing time, or to give room for another voice, &c. to answer what this part sung, as in dialogues, ecchos, &c. See DIALOGO.

The modern ancients had two kinds of Pauses; the one called by the Italians initial Pauses, because placed at the beginning of the piece, though sometimes after, and very regularly before the Circle O, or semi-circle C, that is, either

in triple or common time.

They had also pauses after the characters of the measure, and in the course of the piece which may be called accidental Pauses.

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A general PAUSE, is a general cessation or silence of all the parts.

A demi PAUSE, as the French term it, is a filence during the

time of half a bar.

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We say a Pause of a minim, semi-breve, long Pauses: Pauses of chroma and semi-chroma, are names given by the Italians, to express the different values of Pauses; for the signs and characters thereof, see Character. But yet it may not be amiss here to give the reader their Italian names, which are these,

Pausa di massima, — di longa, — di brevi, — di semibrevi, Pause of a large, — of a long, — of a breve, — of a semibreve Pausa di minima, — di semiminime — di croma or mezzo sospiro. Pause of a minim, — of a crotchet, — of a quaver.

Pausa di semi-croma.
Pause of a semi-quaver.
For their proportions with refeet to common time, See CHARACTER; and with regard to the various species of triple time, see TRIPLE.

PEDALS, are certain keys of an organ, thus called because played and stoped by the seet. See ORGAN. The Pedals or the largest pipes in the machine are made square of wood and other materials, their number is not limited.

They are of modern invention, and ferve to carry the

found an octave deeper than the reft.

PENTACHORD, an ancient mufical instrument with five strings, whence the name werre, five, and xops, a string.

The invention of the Pentachord is referred to the Scythians; the strings were of bullock's leather, and struck with a plectrum

made of goat's horns.

PENTACHORDO, that has five strings or chords. See CHORD and PENTACHORD.

PENTATONON, in the ancient music, is a concord, called by us the redundant fixth. See SIXTH.

It consists of four tones, and a major and minor semi-tone; whence the name of *Pentaton*, q. d. five tones. See Concord and Tone.

PER ARSIN, PER THESIN, terms in music; Per is a Latin preposition, signifying by, during; Arsis and Thesis are Greek words, the first whereof signifies elevation, the last, position.

PER THESIN then, fignifies in beating or during the fall of the hand for the first part of the bar; and Per Arsin, du-

A a ring

ring the rise of the hand, or the last part of the bar; which

in common time is equal, and in triple, unequal.

A fong, counterpoint, or fugue, &c. are faid to be Per Thesin, when the notes descend from acute to grave; and on the contrary, that they are Per Arsin, when the notes rise or ascend from grave to acute. See Acute and Grave.

PERFECT, (or PERFETTO in Italian) denotes fomething that fills and fatisfies the mind or ear; in which fense we say, a persett cadence, concord, &c. and is there opposed to impersect. See each in it's place, CADENCE, CONCORD. &c.

The ancients had two kinds of modes, the major and minor, and each of these was again either perfect or imperfect.

See Modo.

This word, when joined with mode, time, &c. usually expresses the triple time or measure, in opposition to impersect time, which is common or duple time. See TRIPLE TIME and MEASURE. See also O.

PERFETTA Tripola. See TRIPLE.

Sesqui altera maggiore PERFETTA. See SESQUI.

PERFETTA prolatione. See PROLATION.

Punto di PERFETTIONE. See POINT and PUNTO.

PERFETTO, perfect. See PERFECT, TRIPLE,

SESQUI, and SIGN.

PERFIDIA, is a term borrowed from the Italians, fignifying an affectation of doing always the same thing, following the same design, of continuing the same motion, the same song, the same passage, and the same figure of notes; such as the stiff basses of chacones, &c. because depending wholly on the caprice of the composer. We have examples of this kind in Angelo Berard's Documenti Armonici.

PER Ogni Tempi, when placed in a motetto, fignifies that it may be played at any time, on any occasion, not being

fixed for any particular day or subject.

PERIPHERES, is a Greek term, which according to Martianus Capella, has the same signification with what the Italians call Conducimento circoncorrente, and the Latins Ductus Circumcurrens. See Ductus and Conducimento.

PERPETUI Suoni. See Suono.

PERTHESIN. See PER.

PERTINACCIA, nearly the same with Persidia. See Perfidia.

PETTEIA, wetten, in the ancient music, a Greek term, to which we have no corresponding one in our Language.

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The Melepoëia, i. e. the art of arranging founds in succession so as to make melody, is divided into three parts, which the Greeks called Lepsis, Mixio, and Chresis; the Latins Sumptio, Mistio, and Usus; and the Italians Presa, Mescolamento, and Uso; the last is by the Greeks also called

Petteia, and by the Italians Pettia.

PETTEIA or Pettia then, is the art of making a just discernment of all the manners of ranging or combining sounds among themselves, so as they may produce their effect; i. e. may express the several passions they are intended to raise: thus, e.g. it shews what sounds are to be used, and what not, how often any of them are to be repeated, with which to begin, and with which to end, whether with a grave sound to rise, or an acute one to fall, &c. It is the Petteia that constitutes the manners of music; it being this that chooses out this or that passion, this or that motion of the soul to be awakened, and if it be proper to excite it on this and that occasion; 'tis therefore in music, what manners are in poetry.

We do not see whence the denomination should have been taken by the Greeks, unless from relief, their game of chess; the Petteia being a fort of combination or arrangement of sounds, as chess is of the pieces called retroit, calculi, Chess-

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Petteia est qua cognoscimus, quinam sonorum omittendi, & qui sint assumendi, tum quoties illorum singuli. Porro à quonam incipiendum, & in quem definiendum, atque hæc quoque morem exhibet. Aristides.

PHANTASTIC Style, is a style proper for instruments, or a free and unlimitted kind of composition, subject to no rules, governed by no design, and not at all premedi-

tated. See COMPOSITION and STYLE.

PHONICS, the doctrine or science of sound, called also Acoustics. It comes from the Greek point, sound, voice. Phonics may be considered as an art analogous to Optics, and may be divided like that into refracted, reflected, and direct. These branches the bishop of Ferns, in allusion to the parts of Optics, denominates Phonics, Cataphonics, and Diaphonics.

Phonics is improveable both with regard to the object,

the medium, and the Organ.

As to the object, found, it may be improved, both with regard to the begetting and propagating of founds. The first in speaking or pronouncing, in whistling or singing, in hollowing or luring, which are all of them distinct arts, and improveable: The second by the position of the sonorous body, with regard to medium. Phonics may be improved by the

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thinness.

thinness and quiescency of the parts thereof, and by the sonorous body's being placed near a smooth wall, either plain or arched, especially cycloidally or elliptically; whence the theory of whispering places. Add to these, that placing the sonorous body near the water, it's sound is mollissed; that by placing it on a plain, the sound is conveyed to a greater distance than on higher ground, &c. See Sound and Bell.

As to the Organ, the ear, it is helped by placing it near a wall, (especially at one end of an arch, the sound beginning at the other,) or near the surface of water or the earth; and also by instruments, as the Stentorophonic Tube or Speaking Trumpet. See TRUMPET. And likewise by an instrument to help weak ears, as spectacles do eyes; by an istrument that takes in vast remote sounds, as tellescopes do objects; by a microphone or magnifying ear instrument; by a polyphone or multiplying ear instrument.

Cataphonic or reflected hearing may be improved by feveral kind of artificial ecchoes; for in general, any found falling, either directly or obliquely, on any dense body of a smooth surface, whether plain or arched, is beat back again, or re-

flected, i. e. does eccho more or less.

PHRYGIAN Mode, a war-like kind of music fit for Hautboys and Trumpets, to inspire the men to military atchievements, such as marches, &c. also a sprightly measure in dancing.

PHTONGOS, a found or tone; the found and tone are indifferently used to express the same thing, they differ greatly from each other. See Tone and Sound.

PHYSICA Musica. See Musica.

PIANC, foft and sweet, by way of an eccho. See

Eccho and CANTO.

PIANISSIMO, very foft, and fo as that the found may feem at a great distance, and almost lost in air. See PPP.

PIANO PIANO, or PIU PIANO, is nearly the fame with pianissimo, or rather a degree between it and Piano. See P.

PICCIOL A Tripola. See TRIPOLA or TRIPLE.

PICCIOLA. See ORGAN and TROMBONE.

PIENO, is often used for the words tutti, grandée, or grossi, and often with choro, as Pieno choro, — a full chorus.

Sometimes also it signifies force, vehemence, ennergy; in which sense, they say a fifth is Piu Pieno than the octave, i. e. it has more effect, or makes itself more sensible to the ear.

PIENO

PIENO, Piu Pieno. See QUINTA and NOTE.

PIETOSO, fignifies to play or fing in a foft manner,

fit to move pity or compassion.

PIFFERO, is a little Flute or Fife. This inftrument is used in war, generally by itself, unless accompanied with the Drum; the sound it yields is extreamly shrill, loud, and is heard at a great distance; it is held after the manner of a German Flute to be played on. See FLUTE and FLAGEO-LET.

PIQUE, is to separate and divide the notes one from another, in a plain and distinct manner; this is otherwise ex-

pressed by the words Staccato and Spiccato, which see.

PIKNOS, but rather fee PYKNOS.

PIVA, a Hautboy or a Cornet. See HAUTBOY and CORNET.

P I U, a little more, it increases the strength of the signification of the word to which 'tis added, as

PIU Allegro, - a little quicker.

PIU Piano, - more flow, or more soft.

PIU Presto, i. e. play a little brisker and quicker than presto itself requires; and so of the other words adagio, lente grave, vivace, &c. See each in it's proper place.

PLAGALE, Plagal. See Fuga, Modo, and

AUTENTICO.

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PLOKE or PLOKI. See Usus.

PLAIN Chant. See { CHANT. DESCANT.

PNEUMATICOS. See STROMENTO.

POCO, a little lefs, has just the contrary effect of piu, and therefore diminishes the strength of the signification of the word to which it is annexed.

Poco allegro. See Allegro and Piu. Poco largo, a little flow. See LARGO.

Poco presto, not quite so quick as presto requires. See PRESTO.

Poco piu allegro, a little more brisk and lively than allegro alone requires.

Poco minor allegro, a little less gay than allegro. See Allegro.

POINT, a mark or note aciently used to distinguish the tones or sounds. See Note and Sound.

Hence we still call it simple counterpoint, when a note of the lower part answers precisely to that of an upper; and figurative counterpoint, when any note is syncoped, and one of the parts makes several notes or inflexions of the voice while the other only holds on one. See COUNTERPOINT.

We

We still use a Point to raise the value of a note, and prolong it's time by one half, e.g. a Point added to a semibreve instead of two minims, makes it equal to three, and fo of the other notes. See TIME, NOTE and CHARAC-TER, see also PUNTO.

PONTICELLA, a small bridge. See BRIDGE and

MAGAS.

PORT de voix, a French term, which fignifies the faculty and habitude of making shakes, passages, and diminutions, wherein the beauty of a fong or piece of music greatly confifts, and which the Italians comprehend under the terms Trilli, gioppi and Strascini.

Bacilli calls the Port de voix, the translation or passing of a lower to a higher note. It confifts in three things; the lower note, which is to be fuftained; the doubling made on the higher note, and the fuftaining the fame after it has been

doubled. This by some is also called anticipation.

POSAUNE, Tuba ductilis, by us called a Sackbut. Tis a fort of large Trumpet, fit only to play the bass or tenor to a Trumpet; it must be lengthned and shortned according as the founds are required to be either grave or acute. See SACKBUT.

POSITIO, is the putting down the hand in beating

time. See THESIS.

POSITIVE, the little Organs usually placed behind or at the feet of the Organist, played with the same wind and the fame bellows, and confifting of the fame number of pipes with the large one, though those much smaller, and in a certain proportion: this is properly the Chair Organ. GAN.

In the Organs of the Jesuits, the Positive is the grand

body.

POTENZA, the letters, characters, and figures, whereby grave and acute founds are diffinguished, were anciently thus called, as the notes and figns of the modern music are now; though some will have Potenza fignify any found whatever produced by an instrument.

POTENZE. See POTENZA and SUONO.
PRATTICO, as Musico Prattico, is strictly speaking no more than a mulician who applies himself wholly to practice, without giving himself any trouble, but merely about the executive or performing part, not endeavouring to compose or make new pieces.

PRATTICA, Practice, as Prattica antiqua or antica, the ancient Practice; or Prattica moderna, - the modern

Practice. See Musica.

PRELUDE, in *Italian Preludio*, is a flourish or an irregular air, which a musician plays off-hand, to try if his instrument be in tune, and so lead him into the piece to be played. Overtures of Operas are a sort of *Preludes*; very often the whole band in the orchestra run a few divisions to

give the tone. See Tuono.

PRESSA, is in general a character, which shews when and where a performer in a concert is to begin to sing or play. But in particular, especially in sugues or canons, 'tis thus marked ;, over the note at which the second part, that is to sollow or imitate the first must begin; if the mark be repeated a second time, 'tis to shew the place where the third part must begin to imitate the second, and so on through all the parts. See Usus.

PRESTO, fast or quick, gayly, yet not with rapidity.

PRESTO PRESTO, the same with prestissimo.

Men PRESTO, or NON TROPO PRESTO, less quick, not too quick.

PRESTISSIMO, is extreamly quick, hastily, with fury.

PRIMA, Viola, voce. See PRIMO. PRIMARIUS. See PROTOS.

PRIMO, the first; this word is often abridg'd, Po, or 10, and added to other words, as

Primo canto, — the first treble. Alto Primo, — the first treble. Tenore Primo, — the first tenor. Basso Primo, — the first bass. Fagotto Primo, —the first bassoon.

Choro Primo, — the first chorus, &c. See TREBLE, TENOR, BASS, TROMBONE, SACKBUT, CHORUS, &c.

PRINCIPALIS, Mediarum & Principalium, Principalium extenta tetrachordon. See System.

PROFESSORE di Mufica, one that studies or teaches,

or is a professor of music.

PROGRESSUS Celer. See Supposition.

PROHIBITO, forbidden, or that is not proper, or according to just rule. Intervallo prohibito is every interval in melody, that does not pass the ear easily or naturally, so give it some pleasure; such are the Tritone, the sixth major, the seventh, ninth, &c. though under certain circumstances even these have pleasing effects, in that by their harshness new render the concords more agreeable. See INTERVAL, TRITONE, &c. See also VIETATO.

PROJECTIO, is when any found in the enhamonic genus is raised three dieses. See Dissolutio and Spon-

DEASMUS.

PROLATION the art of shaking or making several inflexions of the voice or sound on the same note or syllable. See SINGING.

The figns that the antients used to fignify a prolation to be made on any note, was a point in a circle or semi-circle, thus $\odot C$.

This point was the length of a semi-breve and minim;

there are two forts, perfett and imperfect.

Perfect prolation was marked after the cleff as above, and whereever these marks were found, the semi-breve contained three minims, for which reason they placed the figure 3 or $\frac{3}{2}$, which shew that three such notes are required in a bar. A.

Imperfect prolation was marked with the same character with time, and made the semi-breve contain but two minims B.



These characters are almost intirely disused in the modern practice, but as they are often met with in ancient music, 'tis therefore necessary that a musician have some knowledge of them.

Tho' even now the *Italians* have two forts of prolation in music, which are signified by characters resembling that above described A.

The first is prolatione maggiore perfetta, thus marked \bigcirc or $\frac{3}{2}$. The second prolatione minore perfetta, thus \bigcirc or $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{3}{2}$, and oftener \bigcirc and $\frac{3}{2}$; but in both cases the semi-breve contains a whole bar, and its pause the same time, the minim one third of the bar, and its pause the same, and so of the rest in proportion.

PRONTO readily, quick, nimbly, without loss of

time.

PROPE, near. See PARA; Prope media. See PA-

JAMESE, and SYSTEM.

PROPORTION, is the ratio that two terms bear to each other upon comparing them, as two numbers, two lines, two founds, &c. as if we were to compare ut below with folabove, or any other two founds at different parts of the scale. In general there are two sorts of proportion.

The first is equality, and is when two terms are equal, the one containing neither more or less than the other, as 1: 1, 2: 2, 8: 8. Two sounds that are in this proportion

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are faid to be unifons, that is, to have the felf fame degree

of gravity and acuteness. See GRAVITY, &c.

The other is of inequality, as when of two terms one is larger than the other, i. e. contain more parts as 4: 2, because the first contains the latter once, and something left; this therefore must be inequality. Of this proportion there are five species, which the Italians call Generi.

First, Moltiplice or Multuple, is when the larger number contains the small one twice, as 4: 2; if this greater term do contain the less but twice as 4: 2, 6: 3, 16: 8, &c. it is called proportio dupla, if three times tripla, if four

quadrupla, and fo on to infinity.

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The second fort of proportion of inequality is prop-rtione del genere, or super particolare, when the greater term contains the less once, and a third of the greater remains, as 3: 2; if the number remaining be exactly half the less number, the proportion is called fefqui alteral; if a third part of the less, as 4:3 fequi terza, and so on, adding to fesqui the ordinal number of the less term:

The third proportion of inequality, is called proporfione del genere super parziente, in which the greater terms contain the less once, and 2, 3, 4, or more parts of the less remain, or as Zarlin fays 2, 3, 4, or more units, &c. This proportion is diftinguish'd by the words bi, tri, quadri, Sc. between super and parziente; thus the proportion of 5: 3, is called super bi parziente terza, because 5 contains 3 once, and two units remain, which are two parts of three; that of 7: 4 Supér tri parziente quarta by reason 7 contains 4 once, and three parts of 4 remains, and so of others. The fourth and fifth forts; of proportion of inequality are compoudned of the Multuple, and one of those above described; 'tis needless to fay any thing concerning these here, since those above mentioned alone are used by musicians to compare sounds, and to measure the differences of concords and discords. For the table of concords, see CONCORD; we shall here lay down that of discords.

TABLE.

Seventh Greater	15 :	8
Seventh Less	· 0 :	. 5
False Fifth	- 64 :	45
Tritone	45	32
Tone or fecond Major	9	: 8
Tone Minor	to :	9
Semi-tone Major or fecond Minor -	16	: 15
Semi-tene Minor		: 24
Comma -	81 :	
n ,	11334	

But it is still to be observed, that what has been said must be understood of comparing agreer number with the less, and therefore must be thus written 3: 1, or \(\frac{3}{4}\); for if you compare a less to a greater, the places must be changed thus, 1: 3 or \(\frac{1}{3}\), and the word sub must be placed to the name above mentioned, as proportio tripla is thus marked 3: 1 or \(\frac{3}{4}\) and proportio sub tripla thus, 1: 3 or \(\frac{1}{3}\).

PROPORZIONE. See PROPORTION.
PROPRIETA. See Note and VIRGULA.
PROSLAMBANOMENOS, supernumerary, added.

This name the ancient Grecians gave to one of the chords of their lyre or system, which answers the A mi la of the first octave of the organ, or modern scale. See SCALE and

SYSTEM.

PROTOS, Deuteros, Tritos, Tetartos, four Greek words, which in Latin fignify Primarius, Secondarius, Tertiarius, and Quartarius, according to Mr Broffard, but oftener found Protus, Deuterus, Tritus, and Tetartus. These terms were used by several writers on music, since the XIth century, or Guido's time, to name the eight tones or modes of the plain song, which were all they distinguish'd, and called the first and second tones Proton or Primarii, that is, of the first rank, the third and sourth Deuteron, of the second; the fifth and sixth modes Triton or Tertiarii of the third rank; and the seventh and eighth Tetarton or Quartarii of the sourth; 'tis thought by some that the modern Grecians use the same names at present. See Tuono.

PSALM, a divine fong or hymn, from the Greek Yame, Ifing. The word Pfalm is appropriated to the hundred and fifty pfalms of David; and the name Canticle or Song given to other pieces of the same kind composed by other Prophets

and Patriarchs.

Jul.

St Augustin observed that the ancients made a difference between Canticle or Song, and Psalm; that the former was sung solitary, or by the voice alone, but the latter ac-

companied with musical instruments.

The Pfalms in the antient editions are divided into five Books, nor is David's name found at the head of more than feventy-three of them; tho' fome, and among the rest, St Augustin and St Chrysostom attribute all the hundred and fifty to him without exception. The fews however were always of another sentiment; and 'tis certain that some sew, at least, were not his. St ferom observes, among the number, several that were composed long after David; Du Pin adds, it is difficult to ascertain the authors. All we know of the look is, that it is a collection of songs made by Esdras.

Gradual

Gradual Pfalms were those anciently sung on the steps of the temple.

The penitential Pfalms were formerly the same as those

now fo called. See GRADUAL,

PSALMODY, the art or knowledge of finging plalms, from the Greek Yanusla. See PSALM.

PSALTERION, Pfaltery, a musical instrument much in use among the ancient Hebrews, who called it Nebel.

We know little or nothing of the precise form of the ancient psaltery.

That now in use is a flat instrument in form of a trape-

zium, or triangle truncated a-top.

It is firung with thirteen wire chords fet to unison and octave, and mounted on two bridges, on the two sides; it is struck with a plectrum or little iron rod, or sometimes with a crooked stick, whence 'tis usually ranked among the instruments of percussion.

It's cheft or body resembles that of a Spinet. It has its name à Pfallendo; some also now call it Nablum or Na-

blium.

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Papias gives the name of Pfaltery to a kind of Flute used in churches, to accompany the singing, in Latin called Sambucus. See SAMBUCUS.

PULSATILE, as Pulfatile instruments, for which

fee STROMENTO.

PUNTO, PUNCTUS, or PUNCTUM, Point. See NOTE, CHARACTER, PROLATION, and POINT. There are besides those Points described under the above recited articles, other kinds of Points, as Puncti Convenentia ac mora, Punctus Caudatus, Puncto D' Accressimento, or augmentation, points of division, translation, alteration, and impersection, which we shall here describe.

First then, Puncti Convenentiæ ac moræ, are thus marked or, or, both which denote that the note over which they are placed is to be held out till the other parts come to their conclusions, and this only when put in one part of the piece; for if it be found in all the parts of the song, it marks

a general filence, ad libitum.

Second, Punctus Caudatus, or point with a tail thus, of this is otherwise called Point of Alteration or Division, of which

we shall fay more.

Third, Puncto Di Accressimento or Augmentation, is very common in the antient as well as modern music, and what has been said under note of augmentation, is a sufficient explanation hereof with regard to common time. See Note.

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But with regard to triple time this has other effects, which come under the articles of

Fourth, Punto Di Perfettione: here it makes the breve perfect, for the breve in the triple \(\frac{3}{4}\) usually contains three times, or one whole bar, if it be followed by another breve, or any note of greater value than itself, but if followed by a semi-breve, or two minims, \(\frac{1}{16}\)c. it contains but two thirds of a bar, and therefore wants a point to make it perfect; which point from this has it its name.

 $\frac{3}{2}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{3}{8}$; in the

first example the breve is equal to a breve and a semi-breve; in the second a semi-breve to one and a minim; in the third a minim is equal to a minim and crotchet; and in the last the crotchet to one and a quaver. This point still increasing the value of the note to which it is added by one half.

Fifth, Punto Di Divisione has quite the contrary effect with Punto di Perfettione, and is placed on the left side of notes, and divides them. 'Tis put in triple time, before a semi-breve sollowed by a breve, and diminishes the breve of one third of it's content, so that it contains but two times instead

of three

Sixth, Punto di Translatione, is a Point by which the value of one note is carried to another, that is sometimes very distant from it; 'tis placed before and after a semi-breve sollowed by a number of breves; the second of these points is transfered to the last of those breves, and makes it contain

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Seventh, Punto di Alterazione diminishes the breve, for a Point placed between two semi-breves situated betwixt two breves, less e breves so that they contain but two times, not a bar, and the same holds with regard to

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and minims and fo of the reft.

Lastly, Punto di Impersettione, diminishes the long two ways, first of one of it's parts, and then of two, if placed before a semi-

parts, as ; but if placed before a long followed by two femi-breves, it takes away two of its fix parts, as

PUNTO di Radoppiamento. See RADOPPIAMENTO. PYKNOS. See SPISSUS.

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PUNTO di Radoppiamento. See RADOPPIAMENTO. PYKNOS. See SPISSUS.

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ADRIPLICATO, fortopl. Serlar anna

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QUADRATO or QUADRO, is a name given to the note B when it comes in the natural or diatonic order, thus marked , 'tis a femitone minor higher than the B mol or b, and in respect of that may be called sharp. See FLAT and SHARP.

QUADRIPLICATO, Quadruple. See INTERVAL

and PROPORTION.

QUARTA, the fourth of one of the concords or harmonical intervals. See DIATESSARON, FOURTH, and INTERVAL.

This interval, as well as the octave and fifth, admits not of majority and minority; and when placed below the fifth, divides the octave arithmetically, and distinguishes the plagal from the authentic modes. See HARMONICAL DIVISION.

'Tis by some, says Mr Brossard, esteemed an impersect concord, but is most generally allowed to be persect; 'tis treated in practice by some as dissonant, and contrarily by others.

The fourth to be just must contain diatonically two tones, one major the other minor, and a major semi-tone, and chromatically five semi-tones, three major and two minor.

If the fourth contains only a tone and two major femitones, or three femi-tones major and one minor, 'tis faid to be diminished, and therefore diffonant; which is not used unless by supposition, when 'tis resolved by the third, or sometimes by the false fifth, &c.

If two tones, a semi-tone major and another minor, or three major and three minor semi-tones be found in the fourth, 'tis called tritone, false fourth, and is superfluous, consequently a discord, which is absolutely forbidden in melody, and which passes in harmony only when resolved by the fixth, sometimes by the octave, and very rarely by the third.

The fourth and it's double triples, &c. are indifferently marked in thoro' bass by a 4, in which the diminished fourth is thus marked \rightarrow 4, and the superfluous or tritone \implies 4.

The

The perfect fourth has a very good effect in melody rifing or falling by disjoint as well as conjoint degrees, &c. and is necessary to form a perfect cadence. See CADENCE.

'Tis not then to be wondred at, fays Mr Broffard, that the ancients, whose music was only melody, place it among the concords, and that it's greatest enemies are obliged to agree

that in this respect at least, 'tis truly so.

But in harmony 'tis true it has fomething harsh, which is softened by the third, when the upper part syncopes, and by the fifth when the lower part syncopes; and 'tis for this reason that in practice 'tis treated as a dissonance. To this some say that it is a concord to the first part of the syncope, and that it serves as a preparation to the sourth which is made on the second part thereof, we shall not here take upon us to enter the dispute, but refer the reader to Kercher, Mersenne, Zarlin, &c.

Sesqui QUARTA dupla. See SESQUI and PROPOR-

TION.

QUART-FAGOTTO. See Dulcino and Bassoon.

QUARTARIUS. See Protos.

QUARTO, fourth, as Quarto choro, modo, Violino, the fourth chorus, mode or tone, Violin, &c. See each in it's place.

QUATRICROMA, is what we call a demi-femiquaver, thirty two whereof make a bar in common time.

See TIME and TRIPLE; see also BISCHROMA.

A QUATRO Soli. See QUATUOR.

A QUATRO Tempi. See TEMPO.

QUATUOR, four, is often found in pieces of music, and shew that they are composed for four voices or instruments; the Italians say à Quatro soli, that is, for sour only or alone. How these sort of compositions are to be performed. See Sysigia.

QUAVER, a measure of time equal to half the crotchet or an eighth of the semi-breve. See CROTCHET and

SEMI-BREVE.

C

'Tis thus marked or . See it under the article CHA-

RACTER among the others.

The English QUAVER is what the French call Crocke, crotchet, because of the hook at bottom, which much resembles a shepherd's crook. See CROTCHET.

The Quaver is dvided into two semi-quavers, thus marked or , and into sour demi-semi-quavers. See SEMI-

QUAVER.

QUAVERING, the act of trilling or shaking, or running a division with the voice. See SINGING.

QUIETO, Maniera Quieta. See MUTATION. QUINQUE, five, as Quinque foli, only five parts, or a piece composed for five voices or instruments only. See

QUATUOR.

QUINT A. See DIAPENTE, FIFTH and CONCORD. The fifth is one of the perfect concords, i. e. of such as do not admit of majority or minority, and with the fourth make an octave, which is said to be divided arithmetically when the fourth is below, and harmonically when the fifth is below; and 'tis these different divisions that occasion that distinction of modes into authentic and plagal; the latter division being in authentic modes, and the former in plagal. This interval in instruments whose sounds are fixed is for many reasons diminished, i. e. it's true mathematical proportions of 3:2, are not always given it, and the contrary happens to the fourth, which is encreased. See TEMPERAMENT.

If the fifth be composed of two tones and two semi-tones major, or six semi-tones whereof four are major and two minor, it becomes dissonant, and is said to be salse or diminished; in which case 'tis resolved in harmony by the third, and accompanied by the sixth; 'tis permitted in melody descending but

If it be composed of three tones, one semi-tone major and one minor, or of eight semi-tones, sour of which are major and sour minor, 'tis called tetratonon, as containing sour tones, and becomes superstuous and dissonant, and is not permitted in melody in any manner. In harmony 'tis allowed when resolution

All these fifths are in the thorough bass marked by 5. If at any time the superfluous be required, 'tis thus dishinguished #

5; if the diminished, thus b 5.

In melody, when perfect, it is of great service, and has great beauties, and therefore may be used in any manner rising or falling, but disjoint or conjoint degrees; it makes a perfect cadence falling, and an attendant one rising, (see CADENCE) and is the dominant of every authentic mode.

In harmony, the fifth composes what is called the harmonical triad, because containing the thirds major and minor. 'Tis this that is most heard in the parts near the bass, and hence it is by the Italians said to be Piu pieno, i. e. satisfies the ear more fully than the octave, which is of a sweeter nature, and does not strike the senses so powerfully as the fifth: but care must be taken that two just fifths never follow one another; for thereby, fays Zarlin, there will be no variety of harmony or proportion, &c. but it may be followed by an octave, third or fixth, and even by a fifth either diminished or superfluous. The fifth often resolves the second syncoped by the lower part, but that must rather be superfluous or diminished than just; it also resolves the fourth when syncoped by the lower part, as also the seventh when syncoped in the upper part, and fometimes in the lower.

QUINTUPLE is a species of multuple proportion. when the greater number contains the less just five times, as 10 2, 20 4, &c. See PROPORTION.

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RADDOPIAMENTO, redoubling, as Punto di raddo piamento, according to Zarlin, is the same with point of alteration. See Punto.

RADDOPIATO, doubled or compounded.

RAGGIONE, ratio, proportion, especially among those who write the theory of music and proportion of sounds. See PROPORTION.

RATIONAL, what properly belongs to arithmetic;

its proportion and ratio's are ordinarily call'd rational.

RATIONE. See RAGGIONE.

RATTLE, among the antients, a musical instrument of the Pulsatile kind, called by the Romans Grepitaculum. See Music.

The Tintinabulum, Crotalum, and Systrum, are by some esteemed only so many different kinds of Rattles. See Bell,

CROTALUM, and SYSTRUM.

The invention of the Rattle is ascribed to the famous mathematician Archytas; whence 'tis called by Aristotle 'Apxulus arann, Archytas's Rattle; Diogenes adds the occasion of its invention, i. e. that Archytas having children he contrived this instrument to prevent their tumbling his things about the house; so that how much soever other instruments have changed their use, the Rattle we are sure has preserved its own.

RE, was with the rest of the syllables invented by Guido Aretine, to name the sounds in the scale of music; the Vossius says he only improv'd upon them, and that they were first used by the Egytians; be that as it will, by these syllables the

ancient Greek long names were discarded.

In the present Gamut there are two Re's one by Bmol called G re sol, and the other by b natural, called D la re; and as the first is but a transposition of the last, a sourth higher, or a sist lower, by Re they mean D la re, and therefore say only Re. The Lychanos Hypaton, and the Paranete Diezeugmenon of the Grecian scale correspond with the Re of our's. See Lychanos Hypaton, Paranete Diezeugmenon and System.

REALE, à Quatro voce Reale, in four, or for four

parts, whether vocal or instrumental. See PART.

RECHEAT, a leffon which the huntsman winds on the horn, when the hounds have lost their game, to call them back from pursuing a counter scent. See HORN.

RECITARE. See RECITATIVO.

RECITATIVO, often abridged Recito, Reci, or Ria kind of finging that differs but little from the ordinary pronunciation, such as that wherein the several parts of the liturgy are rehearsed in Churches or Cathedrals, or that wherein the actors commonly deliver themselves on the theatre at the operation of the former is rather a chant. See SINGING and OPERA.

The Italians value themselves on their performances of this kind, or Recitative way. Mr Broffard fays these words are often found in Italian Cantatas, and are still more common in their Opera's, which, to speak plain, are no more than so many fuccessive Cantatas, that have some connection to a general subject, which runs through the whole Opera; 'tis according to him, as has been faid, a manner of finging, which borders upon declaming, as if one declamed in finging, or fung in declaming, and of confequence wherein more regard is had to the expression of the passion, than of exactly observing a regular movement. Notwithstanding this fort of composition is noted in true time, the performer is at liberty to alter the pars of measure and make some long others short, as his subject requires; hence the thorough bass to the Recitative is ordinarily placed below the other, to the end that he who is to accompany the voice, may rather observe and follow the finger, than the person that beats the time.

The French call whatever the Italians distinguish by the name of Solo or Soli, be it one, two, three, four or more parts,

by the general title of Recit.

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RECITATIVOS are used to express some action, passion, to relate some story, or to reveal some design, &c. and are what in our Operas usually tire the audience, by reason they do not understand the language, but the songs make them some amends. See Song. The word is derived from Recitando or Recitare.

RECITATIVE Style is a way of writing, accommodated to that fort of music.

RECITO, also signifies the adagios or grave parts in Motetos, Cantatas, &c. See CANTATA.

RECTUS Ductus. See Ductus or Usus.

REDUCTION. See DEDUTTIONE.

REDITTA. See FUGA and REPLICA.

REFRET. See RITORNELLO.

REGISTER, which we generally call a stop, is a part of an organ, being a thin piece of wood, perforated with a number of holes answerable to those in a found board, which being drawn one way stops them, and the other opens them again, for the admission of the wind into the sizes: to

large Organs, there are several Registers as there are different rows of pipes; as the full Organ, the Flute stop, Trumpet, Eccho stops, a play of Violins, &c. See Organ.

REGULA, a Rule or Canon, whereby fomething is to be done, as Regula Harmonica, or Canon Harmonicus. See

CANON.

REGULA, a Rule See Mode and Monochord.

REGULAR, in *Italian Regolare.*, according to some rule, to some intent, to follow some design, either to imitate or otherwise, to make regular Cadences, and such like. See CADENCE, IMITATION, and MODE.

REHEARSAL, an essay or experiment of some composition made in private, previous to the representation or performance in publick, to habituate the actors or performers, and make them ready or perfect in their parts; we say there is a new tragedy in Rehearsal, or the Rehearsal of a new Anthem, but for the latter we more usually say Practice.

RELATION inharmonical is a musical term used in compositions, signifying a harsh reslection of slat against sharp in a cross form, as when some harsh and displeasing discord is produced in comparing the notes of one part with those of another; or, says Mr Brossard, that whose extreams form a salse and unnatural interval incapable of being sung, that is, with any great pleasure. For as of Relations some are just and others salse, the just Relations are those whose extremities form some consonant intervals, so on the contrary the salse form dissonant ones. See Concord and Discord.

But it must not be understood that the dissonant Relations are unsit for music, for among them are found very excellent ones, especially for moving the affections of the mind, as grief, pity, compassion, and other soft emotions, but then there are also among them such as are almost intolerable, which 'tis thought the ablest masters cannot avoid, for Mr Br sard speaks this line from an eminent writer, "Evite qui voudra, ou plutôt qui pourra les fausses Relation.

REMISSIO, is the act of the voice, when it descends from a high note or sound to a low one, as the contrary is called *intentio*. See INTENTIO.

REPAUSARE. See Paufa.

REPEAT, a character, shewing that what was last play'd or sung must be repeated or gone over again. See REPETITION.

The Repeat serves instead of writing the same thing twice over: there are two kinds of Repeats, the great and small.

The

The first is a double bar dotted one each fide

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or a double bar dotted in the middle or two parallel lines drawn perpendicularly across the staff with the dots as

above.

This shews that the preceding strain is to be repeated; that is, if it be near the beginning of the piece all hitherto sung or play'd is to be repeated; or if towards the end thereof.

all from fuch another mark.

In Gavots we usually find Repeats, about a third part of the piece. In Minuets, Borees Courants, &c. towards the end, or in the last strain. See MINUET, GAVOT, &c.

Some make this a rule, that if there be dots on each fide of the bars, they direct to a repetition both of the preceding and following strains; if there be dots only on one fide the strain, that side alone is to be sung or play'd over again.

The small Repeat is when some of the last measures of a

strain are to be repeated.

This is denoted by a character fet over the place where the Repeat begins, (See CHARACTER) and continues to the end of the feries.

When the fong ends with a repetition of the first strain or part, instead of a Repeat, they use the words Da Capo, or the letters D C. i.e. at the beginning.

REPERCUSSION, a frequent Repetition of the same

founds. See REPETITION.

This frequently happens in the modulation, where the effential chords of each mode of the harmonical triad are to be struck oftener than the rest; and of these three chords the the two extreams, i. e. the final and the dominant ones (which are properly the Repercussions of each mode) oftener than the middle one.

REPETITION, a reiterating or playing over again the same part of a composition, whether it be a whole strain,

part of a strain or double strain, &c.

The Repetition is denoted by a character called a Repeat, which is varied so as to express the various circumstances of a Repeat. See REPEAT.

When the fong ends with a Repetition of the first strain, or part of it, the Repetition is denoted by Da Capo or DC. that

is, from the head.

REPITITION, reply, is also used in music, when after a little silence one part repeats or runs over the same notes, the same intervals, the same motions, and in a word, the same song, which a first part had already gone over during the silence of

this

this, and is nearly the same with fugue. But see Fugue. and IMITATION for the distinction.

REPITITION, or reply, is also a doubling, trebling, &c. of an interval, or a reiteration of some consonance or diffonance, as a fifteenth is a Repetition of the octave, i. e. double octave, or a second octave, and so of others. See Oc-TAVE and INTERVAL.

REPETATUR, fignifies let it be repeated, or it must be repeated, or that a part of a fong, symphony, &c. be play'd or fung over again. See REPLICA.

REPLICA, Reditta, or Riditta, a repetition, that is, when one part after a filence repeats or runs over the fame notes and intervals, and in fact the same song, which some part had gone over before it, during that filence.

This word is often used for Repetatur, let it be repeated; but to take off that harshness of speech, they say Si replica si piace il Ritornello, il Choro, &c. i. e. repeat if you please the Ritornel, or the chorus, &c.

REPLICATO, is properly doubled, as Intervallo replicato, Ottava replicata. See INTERVAL and REPI-TITION.

REPRESSA, a character where the repeat begins. See its form under CHARACTER.

RESEARCH, or Ricercata, a kind of prelude or voluntary play'd on an Organ, Harpsichord, Theorbo, &c. wherein the compofer feems to look out or fearch for strains, and touches of harmony, which he is to use in the regular piece to be play'd afterwards. See PRELUDE, OVERTURE,

'Tis usually done off-hand, and consequently requires a mafter's skill.

When in Motetos the composer takes the liberty to use any thing that comes into his head, without applying any words to it, or subjecting himself to express the sense or passion thereof, the Italians call it Fantasia Ricercata, the French Recherche and our musicians Research.

Research is also sometimes used as Repeat, Replica, &c. See

REPEAT, REPLICA, and REPLICATO.

RESOLUTION, is when a canon or perpetual fague is not wrote on a line, or in one part; but all the voices that are to follow the guide or first voice are writ separately, either in score, that is in separate lines, or in separate parts, with the pauses each is to observe, and in the proper tone to each.

RESONANCE, or resounding, &c. a sound returned by the air inclosed in the bodies of stringed musical instruments, ments, as lutes, &c. or even in the bodies of wind instruments, as Flutes, &c. See Sound and Music.

We fay also eliptic and parabolic vault will resound

strongly, that is, will reflect or return a found.

The mouth and the parts thereof, as the palate, tongue, teeth, nose, and lips, Mons. Dedart observes, contribute nothing to the tone of the voice, but their effect is very

great as to the resonance.

Of this we have a very fensible instance in that vulgar instrument called a Jews Harp, or Tromp de Bearn; for if you hold it in your hand, and strike the tongue or spring thereof, which is the method practised to sound this instrument, it yields scarce any noise, but holding the body of it between the teeth, and striking it as before, it makes a musical buz, which is heard a good distance, and especially the lower notes.

So also in the Haut-boys the tone of the reed is always the same, being a fort of drone, the chief variety is in the tone of the resonance produced in the mouth by the greater or less aperture, and the divers motions of the lips. See HAUT-

BOY.

RESPONSAY Song, in the church music, is an anthem of any kind, in which the choristers and the people sing by turns. See Song and Psalm.

REST, a pause or interval of time, during which there is an intermission of the voice or sound. See PAUSE, and

TIME.

Refts are fometimes used in melody, that is, in musick of a single part, to express some simple passion, or even for variety's sake; but more usually in harmony, or compositions of several parts, for the sake of the pleasure of hearing one part move, while another rests, and this interchangeably. See Melody and Harmony.

Rests are either for a whole bar, or more than a bar, or

but for part of a bar.

When the Rest is for a part, it is express'd by certain signs corresponding to the quantity of certain notes of time, as a Minim, Crotchet. &c. and accordingly it is called a Minim Rest, Crotchet Rest, &c.

The characters or figures thereof, see under the article CHARACTER; where the note and corresponding Rest are

found together. See also NoTE.

When any of these characters occur on either line or space; the part is always silent for the time of a minim or crotchet, &c. Sometimes a Rest is for a crotchet and quaver together, or for other quantities of time, for which there are no particular note; in which case, the signs of silence are not mul-

multiplied; but such silence is expressed by placing together as many Rests of different time, as make up the designed Rest.

When the Rest is for the whole bar, the semi-breve Rest is

always used.

If the Rest be for two measures, 'tis marked by a line drawn across a whole space. For three measures, 'tis drawn across a space and a half; and for four measures, across two spaces. But to prevent ambiguity, the number of bars is

usually writ over the fign.

Some of the most antient writers of music, make these Rests of different value in different species of time. e. g. The character of a minim Rest in common time, expresses the Rests of three crotchets in triple time; in that in the triples $\frac{6}{8}$ $\frac{6}{16}$ $\frac{12}{8}$ $\frac{12}{16}$, it always marks the half measure, howsover different these may be among themselves.

They add, that the Rest of a crotchet in common time, is a Rest of three quavers in the triple $\frac{9}{8}$; and that the quaver Rest in common time, is equal to three semi-quavers in the triple $\frac{9}{16}$. But this variety in the use of the same charac-

ters is now entirely laid afide.

RETTO, as Moto Retto. See Moro.

Conducimento RETTO. See Usus.

REVERTENS Ductus. See Usus.

RHYTHM or RYTHMUS, the variety in the movement, as to the quickness or slowness, length or shortness of the notes. See Note and RYTHMICA.

Or Rhythmus may be defined more generally, the proportion which the parts of the motion have to each other. See RHYTH-

MICA.

Aristides, among the antient musicians, applies the word Rhythmus three ways, viz. either to immoveable bodies, when their parts are rightly proportioned to each other, as a well made statue, &c. or to things that move regularly, as in handsome walking, in dancing, in the dumb shews of pantomimes, &c. or thirdly, to the motion of sound or voice; in which the Rhythmus consists of long and short syllables or notes joined together in some kind of order, so as their cadence on the ear may be agreeable.

To which he adds, that it is perceived by three fenses; first by the sight, as in dancing; by the touch, as in the beat of

a pulse; and last, by hearing, as in finging.

This in oratory, constitutes what we call a numerous style, and when the tones of voice are well chosen, an harmonical style. See Style.

In effect, Rhythmus in general is perceived either by the eye or ear; and may either be with or without metre: but the strict

Rhythmus

Rhythmus of music is only perceived by the ear, and cannot exist without it. The first consists without sound, as in dancing; in which case it may be either with or without any difference of acute and grave, as in a drum, or with

variety of thefe, as in a fong.

The Rhythmus of the antients was very different, as Mr Malcolm observes, from that of the moderns: the former only depended altogether on the poetry, and was only that of the long and short syllables of the words and verses, and had no other forms or varieties than what the metrical art afforded. The changes therein, are none but those made from one kind of metrum to another, as from iambic to choraic.

In the modern music, the constitution of the Rhythmus differs from that of the verse so far, that in setting music to words, the thing chiefly regarded is to accommodate the long and short notes to the syllables, in such a manner, as that the words be well separated, and the accented syllables of each word so conspicuous, that what is sung may be distinctly un-

derstood. See MELODY.

Vossius in his book de Poëmatum cantu & viribus Rhythmi, extolls the antient Rhythmus, tho' he owns it was confined to metrical feet; yet so well did they cultivate their language, especially in what relates to the Rhythmus, that the whole effect

of their music was ascribed to it. See Music.

Vossius' attributes the whole force of the antient music to their happy Rhythmus. But this is somewhat inconceivable; Mr Malcolm rather takes it, that the words and sense of what was sung, had the chief effect; hence it is, that in all the antient music, the greatest care was taken that not a syllable of the word should be lost, least the music should be spoiled.

Pancirolus seems of this opinion; and the reason he gives why the modern music is less persect than the antient, is,

that we hear founds without words.

Vossius adds, that the modern languages and verses are altogether unsit for music; and that we shall never have any right vocal music, 'till our poets learn to make verses capable to be sung; i.e. 'till we new model our language, restore the antient quantities and metrical seet, and banish our barbarous rhymes. Our verses, says he, run as it were, all in one foot, so that we have not any real Rhythmus at all in our poetry: he adds, that we mind nothing farther than to have such a number of syllables in a verse, of whatsoever nature, and whatsoever order. But this exaggeration in some respects is unjust. See Verse.

RHYTHMICA, Rhythmice, in the antient music, that branch which regulated the rhythmus. See RHYTHMUS

The Rhythmica confidered the motions, regulated the meafure, order, mixture, &c. fo as to excite the passions, keep them up, augment, diminish, or allay them.

Aristides, and other antient musical writers, divided artificial music into harmonica, rhythmica, and metrica. See Music.

But the Rhythmica with them likewise comprehends dumb motions, and in effect all rhythmical, i. e. regular motion.

Porphyrius divides music into harmonica, rhythmica, metrica,

organica, poëtica, and hypocritica.

The antients feem to have had no *Rhythm* in their music, beside the long and short syllables of their verses and words which were sung, and always made a part of their music; so that the *Rhythmica* with them, was only the application of the metrical feet, and the various kinds of verses used by them. See RHYTHM.

RHYTHMOPOEIA, one of the antient musical faculties, as they are called, which perscribes rules for motion

or rhythm.

The antient Rhythmopoeia is very defective. We find nothing of it in the books of the antients, but fome general hints; which can scarce be called rules: in their explications there appears nothing but what belongs to words and verses of their songs, which is a very strong presumption they had no

other. See RHYTHM.

This is the opinion of some, but others dissent from it with very good reason, because it is only supported by uncertainty; for tho' we find no more than what they call general hints in the works of the ancients which have come to us; yet in these we find mention made of several other treatises, which perhaps would have set us right, had they come to our hands; and this supposition is not absurd, because by these we are, as it were, referred thereto for farther satisfaction; so that this opinion has at least a small shew of certainty for it's defence.

RIBATTUTA, a repeating or founding again the fame note: this is no more than shaking upon it, or making many inflections of the voice upon any particular found.

RICERCATA, a kind of extempore prelude or overture, the fame as a voluntary. See RESEARCH, VOLUN-TARY, PRELUDE, and OVERTURE.

RIDITTA. See REPLICA.

RIFORMATO Systema. See TEMPERAMENT and System.

RIGA LINE, this is the name the *Italians* give those horizontal lines, whereon, and between which, the notes and characters of music are disposed.

Originally

Originally there were as many lines drawn for a fong, as it required notes ascending and descending, for then they placed the notes only upon the lines, but at length they placed them in the spaces, and reduced the number to four; so that there were nine places or degrees for nine different sounds, which was their extent: at last they raised the number to five, of which the lowest is reckoned first; and hereon they placed the characters for eleven different sounds, including the spaces above the fifth and below the first; and at the same time they had the liberty at pleasure to add more lines if the song ran to a greater compass; and these added lines are by us called ledger lines. See Ledger.

RIGADOON, a kind of dance, borrowed originally from *Provence*, performed in figure by a man and woman, it is gay, pleasant, &c. The word is formed of the *French*

Rigadon, which fignifies the fame thing.

RIGOLS, a kind of musical instrument on sisting of several sticks bound together, only separated by beads. It makes a tolerable harmony, being well struck with a ball at the end of a stick.

RIPIANO or RIPIE'NO, fignifies full, and is used in pieces of music in parts, to distinguish those parts that play now and then to fill up, from those that play throughout the

piece.

There are, fays Mr Broffard, two kinds of Ripiénos, one whereof plays the part of the little chorus exactly, and by consequence the harmony or number of parts is not by them encreased; in this part they place pauses in the places of recitos, and only write what is to be played by the whole company, or in da capella, and mark them with the words tutti, omnes, &c. This fort of Ripiéno is found in almost all composition, as well ancient as modern.

The other fort is much better, because they play a different part, or a part proper to themselves, and thereby add to the number of parts, and make the harmony the fuller.

As in pieces where in strictness two trebles, and bass, and thorough bass are sufficient, because these parts are disposed in such a manner, as their harmony is compleat when played all together; yet in order to render the piece more perfect, and to give it more grandeur, a Haut-contre, tenor, and often two Violins are added, whose parts are entirely different from the other; and the harmony then has seven parts instead of three, and is consequently more compleat and full when all the parts are to perform together; and the parts thus added, are what ought properly to be called Ripiéni: they are now come into great use, especially in Italian compositions.

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RIPOSTA

RIPOSTA. See RIDITTA, REPEAT, FUGUE.

RIPRESA. See REPEAT.

RISENTITO, brisk, lively, or expressive.

RISOLUTO, resolved: thus we say a syncoped dis-

cord is resolved. See SYNCOPE.

And thus we say from the Italian, la settima risoluta, con la sesta, con la quinta, con la terza,—the seventh is resolved by the fixth, fifth, or third; and dissonanze ben resolute; - a discord resolved naturally or according to good rules, &c.

RISOLUTO Canone. Set CANONE IN PARTITO.

RISOLUTIONE. See RESOLUTION ..

RISVIGLIATO, this word is put to fignify, that after having played or fung a doleful and lamenting strain, a gay and lively air is to follow. It fignifies in the French to awaken or enliven, from the Italian Risviglie.

The beauty of this kind of music, depends greatly upon the composer's having a due regard to the subject and words of

the piece.

RITORNANTE Conducimento. See Usus.

RITORNELLO or REPEAT, the burden of a fong, or the repetition of the first verses of a song at the end of each

stanza or copulet. See REPETITION.

The word is Italian, and fignifies properly, a little return or short repetition, such as that of an eccho, or of the last words of a fong; especially if the repetition is made after a voice by one or more instruments.

But cuftom has extended the use of the word to all symphonies played before the voices begin; and which feem by

way of prelude and introduction to what follows.

In the partitions of the score of the Italian music, we frequently find the Ritornellos fignified by the words fi fuono, to fhew that the Organ, Spinet or Harpsichord, or the like, are to repeat some few bars of what the voice has been singing.

RIVOGLIOMENTO, changing, is the placing a treble or other upper part in the place of the bass, or any low part, or vice versa. This often happens in double counterpoint, where the treble serves for the bass, or the bass for the treble; and that in such a manner, that the harmony, tho' different, remains as correct after this change, as it was in the natural order of the parts.

RIVOLTARE, to change, whence rivoltata—changed, as canto revoltato—the treble changed; baffo rivoltato—the bufs changed; la sesta rivoltato diviene settima — the sixth reversed in double counterpoints, becomes a seventh. This is otherwise

expressed by al or per reverscio. RIVOGLIOMENTO.

RIVOL-

RIVOLTATO. See RIVOLTARE.

RONDEAU, a name applied to all fongs or tunes that end with the first strain, be they gavots, jiggs, minuets, sarabands, or any other kind of airs; and for that reason they have the letters DC, or the words Da Capo at the end of them, to shew that the first part must be begun again to end.

ROSTRUM, is the name of an inftrument wherewith

they rule paper for mufical compositions.

B OTUNDO, round, thus the Italians name our B moll or flat; and our B natural, they call B quadro, or qua-

drate, from their figures. See B QUADRO and MOLLE.

ROVERSCIO, al or per Roverscio, reversed, changed, turned. See RIVOGLIOMENTO and RIVOLTARE.

ROULADE, a trilling or quavering. See QUAVER-

ROUND, the same with rotundo. See ROTUNDO.

ROUND or Roundley, a kind of burden or ritornello, where the beginning of each copulet is repeated at the end thereof. See RITORNELLO.

described and produced being drawn out a when it is switch in

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es to a particularly at finall one called by the Hallings Tenstone factales, and the Germans, Olema are follows: properties a counter-reson of he particulared to a toucher celled. Then

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Stands for Solo, and is used in pieces of music of several parts, to intimate, that in such places the voice or instru-

ment is to perform folo or alone.

SACBUT, a musical instrument of the wind kind, being a fort of Trumpet, though different from the common one, both in form and size; 'tis very sit to play a bass, and is so contrived as to be drawn out or shortned according to the gravity and acuteness of the tone required.

The Italians call it Trombone, and the Latins, Tuba dustilis. It takes a funder in four pieces or branches, and has frequently a wreath in the middle, which is the same tube only twice twisted, or making two circles in the middle of the instrument, by which means it is brought down one fourth lower than it's natural tone: It has also two pieces or branches on the inside, which do not appear unless drawn out by means of an iron bar, and which lengthens it to the degree to hit the tone defired.

The Sachut is usually eight feet long, without reckoning the circles, and without being drawn out; when it is extended to it's full length 'tis usually fifteen feet; the wreath is two foot nine inches in circumference. It serves as a bas in con-

certs of wind music.

There are Sachuts of different fizes, to execute different parts; particularly a small one called by the Italians, Trombone picciolo, and the Germans, Cleine alt possaune, proper for a counter-tenor. The part assigned it is usually called Trombone primo, or I°. There is another larger called Trombone maggiore, which may serve as a tenor; it's part is usually called Trombone secundo, or II°, or 2do. There is another still bigger, called grosso; it's part is called Trombone terzo, or III°. or 3d°. Lastly there is another which exceeds all the rest, and which is much heard in the music, especially in the bass, it's part is called Trombone quarto or IIII°. or IV°, 4°. or simply Trombone. It has the usual key of Fa ut fa on the fourth line, though frequently also on the fifth line from the top, by reason of the gravity and depth of it's sound.

SALMO, Psalm, a part of the divine office composed originally in Hebrew by the Prophet David, and sung by the Hebrews according to their manner with the accompaniments

of instruments. See PSALM.

Zarlin says, it was Pope Leo III. that introduced their use into the church, and that he regulated the manner wherein they were to be sung, which is in general called psalmody. See Psalmody.

But let that be as it will, the psalms have been very often set to music, and among the various compositions thereof, we find many very excellent pieces under the names of Salmi vespertini,—psalms for the vespers. Salmi dominicali,—psalms for sunday evening, &c.

SALMODIA, is the art, knowledge or practice of finging pfalms, hymns and spiritual songs. See SALMO and

PSALM.

SALTARELLA, a fort of motion that seems to go in a leaping jumping manner; the air hereof is generally in

triple time, and the first note of each bar pointed.

When three crotchets are made to one minim in the triple $\frac{3}{8}$, and three quavers to one crotchet in that of $\frac{6}{8}$, the motion is faid to be made in Saltarella, especially if the first note of the bar be pointed.

The Forlanos of Venice, Sicilians, English jiggs, and other airs which move in this manner, are likewise said to move in

Saltarella.

SALTO, leap, is when the fong does not proceed by conjoint degrees, as when between each note there is an interval of a third, fourth, fifth, &c. See DEGREE and CONJOINT.

'Tis to be observed that there are two kinds of Salti or

leaps: Salti regolare and irregolare.

The Salti regolare are those of a third major or minor, whether natural or accidental, fourth, fifth, fixth minor and octave, and these either ascending or descending.

Salti irregolare are the tritone, fixth major, feventh major, the ninth, tenth, and in general all beyond the compass

of an octave, unless it be for instruments.

Besides these there are some that may be used, but with discretion, as the sourth diminished, the fifth salse or desective, and slat seventh, but mostly descending, very seldom rising.

In effect, all the difference between the regular and irregular leaps, is, that those which are easily performed by the voice, without any great struggle or effort, are regular, as the contrary are irregular; which last should be very seldom used in a song, unless there be between them a silence long enough to weaken the idea of the first sound before the second be heard.

SALVE Regina, a kind of anthem. See TUONO.

SAMBUCUS, an ancient musical instrument of the wind kind, resembling a fort of Flute; probably thus called

because made of elder, which the Latins call Sambucus. See FLUTE and FLAGEOLET.

SAMPOGNA. See ZAMPOGNA.

SARABAND, a musical composition always in triple time, and is in reality no more than a minuet; the motions of which are slow and serious.

'Tis also a dance to the same measure, which usually terminates when the hand that beats rises, whereby it is distinguished from a courant, which ends when the hand that beats the time falls, and is otherwise much the same as a minuet. See MINUET.

The Saraband is faid to be originally derived from the Sarazens, as well as the Chacone. See CHACONE.

It had its name according to some authors from a Comedian called Sarabandi, who first danced it in France.

Others derive it from the Spanish Sara a Ball; 'tis usually

danced to the found of the Guittarre, or Castenettes.

SCALE, a feries of founds rifing or falling towards acuteness or gravity, from any given pitch of tune, to the greatest distance that is practicable, thro' such intermediate degrees as make the succession most agreeable and perfect, and in which we have all the harmonical intervals most commodiously divided. This scale is otherwise called an universal system, as including all the particular systems belonging to music. See System.

The Origin and Constitution of the Scale.

Every concord or harmonical interval is resolvable into certain numbers of degrees or parts. The octave, for instance, into three greater tones, two less tones, and two semi-tones; the greater fixth into two greater tones, one less tone, and two semi-tones. The lesser fixth into two greater tones, one less tone, and one semi-tone; the fifth into two greater tones, one less tone, and one semi-tone; the greater third into one greater tone and one less; the lesser third into one greater tone and one less; the lesser third into one greater tone, and a major semi-tone. 'Tis true there are varieties of other intervals or degrees besides great tones, less tones, and semi-tones, into which concords may be divided: But these three are preferred to all the rest; and these alone are in use, for the reason where-of see Tone.

Further, it is not any order or progression of these degrees, that will produce melody; a number for instance of greater tones will make no music, because no number of them

them is equal to any concord; and the same is true of the other degrees: Therefore there is a necessity of mixing the degrees to make music, and the mixture must be such as that no two of the same kind be ever next each other. A natural and agreeable order of those degrees Mr Malcolm gives us in the following division of the interval of an octave, wherein (as all the lesser concords are contained in the greater) the divisions of all the simple concords are contained. Under the series are the degrees between each term, and the next; in the first series the progression is by the greater third, and in the latter by the less.

Now the fystem of the octave containing all the original concords, and the compound concords, being only the fum of the octave and fome less concord; 'tis evident, that if we would have the feries of degrees continued beyond an offave, they are to be continued in the same order through a second octave, as through the first; and so on to a third and fourth octave, &c. and fuch a feries is what we call a scale of music, whereof there are two different species, according as the less or greater third, or less or greater fixth are taken in; for both can never stand together in relation to the same key or fundamental, so as to make an harmonical scale. But if by either of these ways we ascend from a fundamental or given found to an octave, the fuccession will be melodious, though the two make two different species of melody. Indeed every note is discord with regard to the next, but each of them is concord to the fundamental, except the second and seventh. In continuing the feries, there are two ways of compounding the names of the simple intervals with the octave, thus a greater or lesser tone or semi-tone above an octave, two octaves, &c

or to call them by the number of degrees from the fundamental, as ninth, tenth, &c. In the two scales above, the several terms of the scale are expresd by the proportionable sections of a line represented by 1, the key or fundamental of the series; if they would have the terms expresd in whole numbers, they will stand as follow, in each whereof the greatest number expresses the longest chord, and the other numbers the rest in order, so that if any number of chords be in these proportions of length, they will express the true degrees and intervals of the scale of music, as contained in an octave concinnously divided in the two different species above mentioned.

540 480: 432: 405: 360: 324: 288: 270.

great less semi great less great less
Tone, Tone, Tone, Tone Tone, Tone, Tone, Tone.

great semi less great semi great less Tone, Tone, Tone, Tone, Tone, Tone, Tone.

This scale the ancients called the Diatonic scale, because proceeding by tones and semitones. See DIATONIC.

The moderns call it fimply the scale, as being the only one now in use; and sometimes the natural scale, because its degrees and orders are agreeable and concinnous. Those others are the chromatic, and the enharmonic scales, which with the diatonic made the three scales or genera of melody of the antients. See Enharmonic, Chromatic, and Diatonic.

The office and use of the scale of music.

The design of the scale of music, is to shew how a voice may rise and fall less than any harmonical interval, and thereby move from one extream of any interval to the other, in the most agreeable succession of sounds. The scale therefore is a system, exhibiting the true principles of music, which are either harmonical intervals, commonly call'd concords; or inconcinnous intervals; the first are essential principles, the others are subservient to them, to make the greater variety. See Concord and Interval.

Accordingly in the scale we have all the concords with heir concinnous degrees, so placed, as to make the most perfect succession of sounds, from any sundamental or key,

which is supposed to be represented by I.

'Tis

'Tis not to be supposed, that the voice is never to move up and down, by any other more immediate distances than those of the concinnous degrees; for though that be the most usual movement, yet to move by harmonical distances as concords at once is not excluded, but even absolutely necessary. In effect the degrees were only invented for variety's sake, and that we might not always move up and down by harmonical intervals; though those are the most perfect; the other deriving all their agreeableness from their subserviency to them. See DIASTEM.

And that besides the harmonical and concinnous intervals, which are the immediate principles of music, and are directly applied in practice, there are other discord relations which happen unavoidably in music, in a kind of accidental and indirect manner. For in the fuccession of the several notes of the scale, there are to be considered not only the relations of those that succeed others immediately; but also those betwixt which other notes intervene. Now the immediate fuccession may be so conducted, as to produce good melody; and yet among the distant notes there may be very gross difcords, that would not be allowed in immediate succession, much less in consonance. Thus in the first series or scale above deliver'd, though the progression be melodious, as the terms refer to one common fundamental, yet are there feveral discords among the mutual relations of the terms, e.g. from fourth to seventh is 32: 45; and from second greater to fixth is 27: 40; and from the second to the fourth is 27: 32; which are all discords; and the same will happen in the second feries. See Discord.

From what we have observed here, and under the article Key, it appears that the same scale supposes no determinate pitch of tune; but that being assigned to any key, it marks out the tune of all the rest with relation to it, shews what notes can be joined to any key, and thereby teaches the just and natural limitations of melody; and when the song is arrived through several keys, yet it is still the same natural scale, only applied to different sundamentals. If a series of sounds be fixed to the relation of the scale, 'twill be sound exceeding desective; but the impersection is not any desect in the scale, but sollows accidentally from its being confined to this condition, which is foreign to the nature and office of the scale of music.

This is the case in musical instruments which have their sounds fixed, and in this consists their great deficiency. For suppose a series of sounds, as those of an organ or harpsichord, fixed in the order of this scale, and the lowest taken at any

E e 2

pitch of tune, 'tis evident, first, that we can proceed from any note only by one particular order of degrees; fince from every note in the scale to its octave is contained a different order of tones and femi-tones. Hence, fecondly, we cannot find any intervals required from any note upwards or downwards: fince the intervals from every note to every other are also limitted; and hence thirdly, a fong may be fo contrived. that beginning at a particular note of the instrument, all the intervals or other notes shall be exactly found on the instrument, or in the fixed feries; yet were the fong, though perfeetly, diatonic began in any other note, it would not proceed. In effect, 'tis demonstrable, there can be no such thing as a perfect scale fixed on any instruments, i. e. no so such scale as from any note upwards or downwards, shall contain any harmonical or concinnous intervals required. The only remedy for this defect of instruments whose sounds are fix'd, must be by inferting other founds and degrees between those of the diatonic feries. Hence some authors speak of dividing the octave into 16, 18, 20, 24, 26, 31, and other number of degrees; but it is easy to conceive how hard it must be to perform on such an instrument. The best on it is, we have a remedy on easier terms; for a scale proceeding by twelve degrees, that is thirteen notes, including the extreams, to an octave, makes our instruments so perfect, that we have little reason to complain. Then this is the present scale for instruments, viz. betwixt the extreams of every tone of the natural scale, put a note which divides it into two unequal parts, called femi-tones (whence the whole may be call'd the femitonic scale) as containing twelve semi-tones betwixt thirteen notes, within the compass of an octave. And to preferve the diatonic feries distinct, the inferted notes take either the name of the natural notes next below, with the mark be called a flat, or the name of the natural note next above it, with the mark # called a sharp. See FLAT, SHARP, and SEMI-TONE.

For the scale of semi-tones, see SEMITONIC SCALE. For Guido's scale, commonly called the Gamut, see GA-MUT.

And for the scale of the ancients, see DIAGRAM.

SCANELLO, the fame with Ponticello and Magas. See Bridge and Magas.

SCHALA, is what we call scale or gamut of music. See Scalt.

SCENICA, Musica. See Music.

SCHISM A, is half a comma, therefore eighteen of them are required to make a compleat tone, i. e. reckoning nine

commasto a tone; but if ten, twenty Schisma's are required, and a Diaschisma being a double comma if the tone has nine commas, four and a half, i. e. and two semi-tones are wanted to compleat it, but if ten commas, five Diaschismas are equal thereto. See Tone and Comma.

SCIOLTO, free at liberty, Contrapunto Sciolto, is a counterpoint that is not full of ty'd or syncoped notes, or that is not constrained by general rules, and that is not obliged to

move, in a particular manner.

Notes are faid to be Sciolti, when they stand by themselves, i. e. not tied to one another which is called Legato.



See COUNTERPOINT and NOTE.

SCORE, partition, or the original draught of all musical compositions; whereon the several parts, as treble, tenor, counter tenor, and bass, are distinctly scored and marked. See PARTITION.

SE. See SI PIACE.

SECOND, one of the musical intervals, being only the difference between any found and the next nearest found, whether above or below it. See INTERVAL.

As in the compass of a tone, there are by some reckoned nine sensible different sounds, and by others ten; which form those little intervals called commas: one may in strictness say, according to the former calculation, that there are eight kinds of seconds, and according to the latter opinion, nine. See Comma.

But as these minute intervals, says Mr Broffard, tho' sensible, are yet not so much, so as to contribute much to harmony,

they usually diffinguish only four forts.

The first called a diminished Second containing four commas is the difference, for instance, of a natural ut, and an ut sharp. The Second called a minor Second, contains five commas, and is made either naturally from mi to fa, or accidentally, by means of a slat, as from la to B mol, or from fa sharp to sol: otherwise called a major semi-tone, imperfect Second, or Italian semi-tone; the third a major Second, containing nine commas which compose the tone; this the Italians call tone or perfect Second; the fourth is a redundant Second, composed of a whole tone and a minor semi-tone. But here also regard must be had to different divisions of the tone, into nine or ten commas. See Comma, Schisma, and Apotome.

In the ancient system, fays Mr Broffard, the Second had but one reply or double, which was the ninth; but in Guido's

fcale it had besides that, the sixteenth for its triplicate, and in the modern it hath the twenty second for it's qua-driplicate, &c.

In thorough baffes these are all marked with a 2 when the lower part syncopes, and with a 9 when the upper part syncopes. When a flat is added, its the Second minor, if a sharp,

major or redundant.

These four species of Seconds are naturally dissonant, tho' in melody, i. e. in the course of a song or single part, the three first may be used, but the last never, or at least very rarely; when a song moves by Seconds, it is otherwise said to move

di grado. See GRADO.

In harmony, the redundant and defective Seconds ought never to be used, there are only the major and minor Seconds that ought with propriety to be admitted, and neither, even of these, on the tempo buono, or accented part of the measure; or if they be, it must be done by syncopation: when the upper part syncopes they must be followed by unison in the next time of the bar, or by the octave, if doubled; and by the third, if the lower part syncopes; there are many other ways of treating the Second, but these are the most easy and natural. See Syncope.

The Seconds have a very good effect in expressing grief and fadness, and the minor rather than the major.

SECONDARIUS. See Protos.

SEGNO. See SIGNA, REST, REPEAT, PAUSE,

NOTE, CHARACTER, and Modo.

SEGUE, it follows, or comes after; this word is often found before aria, alleluja, amen, &c. to shew that those portions or parts are to be sung immediately after the last note of that part, over which 'tis writ. But if these words si piace, or ad libitum are joined therewith, these portions may be sung or let alone at pleasure.

SEMI, a term borrowed from the Latin, fignifying half, but only used in composition with other words. The French

instead of semi, say demi, and the Greeks hemi.

'Tis in music variously used; first, when prefixed to the name of a note, it expresses a diminution of half it's value, as semi-breve. See SEMI-BREVE. Secondly, when added to the name of an interval, it expresses a diminution, but not of half, but makes it less by a semi-tone, or four commas in the whole compass, as semi-diapente. See DIAPENTE and COMMA. Thirdly, it signifies an impersection; thus semi-circolo, or circolo mezzo, signifies an impersect circle, which is the mark of impersect, i. e. common time; whereas the circle being a character of persection, marks triple time. See TIME and TRIPLE.

SEMIBREVE, a note of half the quantity of a breve. containing two minims, four crotchets, &c. See MINIM, CROTCHET, and BREVE.

The Semi-breve is accounted one measure or time, or the integer in fractions and multiples, whereby the time of the

other notes is expressed.

Thus a minim is expressed by 1, a crotchet 1, &c. i. e. of a measure or Semi-brove; a breve by 2, a long by 4; i.e. four measures or Semi-breves. But this regards only common time, for it's various quantities in triple time, fee TRIPLE. The character of a Semi-breve is O. See CHARACTER.

SEMI-Chroma, is our Semi-quaver. See SEMI-

QUAVER.

SEM I-Circolo. See SEM I and CIRCOLO MEZZO.

SEM I-Diapason, a defective octave, or an octave diminished by a minor semi-tone. See OCTAVE and DIAPA-

SEM I-Diapente, a defective fifth, called also false fifth.

See DIAPENTE and FIFTH.

SEMI-Diatesfaron, a defective fourth, properly called a See DIATESSARON and FOURT H. false fourth.

SEMI-Ditono con diapente. See SETTIMA or SE-

VENTH.

SEM I-Ditono, or third minor. See THIRD.

SEM I-Fusa. See Note and Fusa.

SEM I-Minima, is our crotchet. See CROTCHET and MINIM.

SEM 1-quaver, is a note containing half the quantity of a quaver, E. See QUAVER.

SEM I-fospiro, is a little pause of the eighth part of a bar, in common time. See PAUSE.

SEMI-Tripola, sestupla, nonupla, dodecupla, di semi-brevi. See TRIPLE.

SEM 1-Tone, one of the degrees or concinnous intervals of concords. See INTERVAL and CONCORD.

There are three degrees or less intervals, by which a found may move upwards or downwards fuccessively, from one extream of any concord to the other, and yet produce melody; and by means of which, feveral voices and instruments are capable of the necessary variety in passing from concord to concord. These degrees are the greater and less tone, and the Semi-tone, the ratio of the first, is 8:9; that of the second 9: 10. See Tone. The ratio of the Semi-tone is

15:16; which

15: 16; which interval is called a Semi-tone, not that it is geometrically the half of either of the tones, for 'tis somewhat greater, but because it comes near to it: of this opinion is Gaudentius the Philosopher, who chuses rather to call it limma, cæterum quod hemitonium ad pellatur, non est accurate hemitonium; sed dicitur communiter hemitonium, proprie autem limma, in the ratio of 243: 254. 'Tis also called natural Semi-tone and the greater Semi-tone, because greater than the part it leaves behind, which is called apotome, or it's complement to a tone; 'tis 15: 16 in the greater tone, and 128: 135 in the less; which is the residue of a sourth, when two tones major are taken from it, and is inconcinnous: the Semi-tone is the difference of the third greater and sourth; or of the fifth and the lesser sixth.

Every tone of the diatonic scale is divided into a greater and less, or natural and artificial Semi-tone: tho' Gaudentius seems to fay, that the less is used in the diatonic and both in the chromatic genus, - Quorum minori utitur genus diatonicum, chromaticum vero utrisque. Mr Malcolm observes, 'twas very natural to think of a division of each tone, where 15: 16 should be one part in each division; in regard this being an unavoidable and necessary part of the natural scale, would readily occur as a fit degree, and the more, as 'tis not far from exactly half a tone. In effect, the Semi-tones are so near equal, that in practice, at least on all instruments of fixed founds, they are accounted equal, so that no distinction is made into greater and less. These Semi-tones are called fictitious notes, and with respect to the natural ones, are expressed by characters called flats and sharps. See FLAT and SHARP; see also CHARACTER.

Their use is to remedy the defects of instruments, which having their sounds fixed, cannot always be made to answer the diatonic scale. See Scale.

By means of these we have a new kind of scale called, the

femi-tonic scale, which see as it follows.

SEMI-TONIC Scale, or the scale of Semi-tones; a scale or system of music, consisting of twelve degrees, or thirteen sounds in the octave, being a shift, to accommodate the sounds to instruments whereon they are fixed, rather than an improvement on the natural or diatonic scale, by inserting between each two sounds thereof another which divides the interval of a tone into two unequal parts, called semi-tones. See SEMITONE.

For, fay Aristoxenus and Aristides, in the diatonic two semi-tones never come together, tho' in the progress of a song they are often wanted; upon such occasions we use flats

or fharps; but hereby the diatonic intervals are robbed of their

justness. See TEMPERAMENT.

The use of this scale is for instruments that have their sounds fixed, as Organs, Harpsichords, &c. which are exceedingly detective on the foot of the natural or diatonic scale. For the degrees of the scale being unequal, from every note to it's octave there is a different order of degrees; so that from any note we cannot find any interval in a series of fixed sounds; which yet is necessary, that all the notes of a piece of music carried through several keys, may be found in their just tune, or that the same song may be begun indifferently at any note, as may be necessary for accommodating some instruments to others; or to human voices, when they are to ac-

company each other in unifon.

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The diatonic scale beginning at the lowest note, being first settled on an instrument, and the notes thereof distinguished by their names, A, B, C, D, E, F, G; which genus appears from there being two tones, and never more than three together, which are not to be found in either chromatic or enharmonic; the inserted sounds or semi-tones, are called sictious sounds, and take the name, or letter of the note next below, as C \pm is called C sharp, signifying that it is a semi-tone higher than the sound of C in the natural series; and this mark \(\theta\), calassed a flat, with the name of the note above, signifying it to be a semi-tone lower. Now \(\frac{15}{16}\) and \(\frac{128}{135}\) being the two semi-tones the greater tone is divided into; and \(\frac{1}{16}\), \(\frac{25}{25}\) the semi-tones the less tone is divided into; the whole octave will stand as in the following scheme, where the ratios of each term to the next, are wrote fraction-wise between them below.

Scale of Semi-tones.

C	C#	D	D#	E	a F	F	G	G#	A	B	CC
15	128	15	24	15	128	.15	15	24	15	128	15
-	-	-	1.40	-	-	777	-	-	-		-
16	135	16	25	16	135	16	16	25	16	135	16

For the names of the intervals of this scale, it may be confidered, that the notes added to the natural scale, are not designed to alter the species of melody, but leave it still diatonic, and only correct some defects arising from something foreign to the office of the scale of music, viz, the fixing and limiting sounds: We see the reason why the names of the natural scale are continued, only making a distinction into greater and less. Thus an interval of one semi-tone is called a lesser F f fecond; of two, a greater; of three, a leffer third; of four,

a greater third; and fo on.

A fecond kind of femi-tonic scale we have from another division of the octave into semi-tones; which is performed by taking an harmonical mean between the extreams of the greater and lesser tone of the natural scale, which divides it into two semi-tones nearly equal. Thus the greater tone 8:9 is divided into 16:17; where 17 is an arithmetical division, the numbers representing the length of chords; but if they represent the vibrations, the lengths of the chords are reciprocal, viz. as 1:16; $\frac{8}{9}$, which puts the greater semi-tone $\frac{16}{17}$ next the upper, which is the property of the harmonical division. After the same manner the less tone 9:10 is divided into two semi-tones, 18:19 and 19:20, and the whole octave stands thus.

C	C#	D	D#	E	F:	F#	G	G:	#	Ab	BC
			19								
_	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	W	-
			20								

This scale Mr Salmon tell us, in the Philosophical Tranfactions, he made an experiment of before the Royal Society, on chords exactly in these proportions; which yielded a perfect concert with other instruments touched by the best hands. Mr Malcolm adds, that having calculated the ratios thereof for his own satisfaction, he sound more of them salse than in the preceeding scale, but their errors were considerably less, which made amends; so that in the end, he sound both the scales nearly equal.

SÉMPLICE, *simple*, not doubled, compounded, or composed of any thing else, as cadenz a simplice, is a cadence in which all the notes are equal in all the parts. See Coun-

TERPOINT.

SENZA, fignifies without, as Senza stromenti, — without instruments; con è Senza Violini, — with and without Violins.

SEPTIMA, the feventh. See SETTIMA and SE-

SEQUENZA, a fort of hymn sung in the Roman church, which is generally rather in prose than verse; there are many kinds, which are sung after the Gradual immediately before the Gospel, and sometimes in the Vespers before the Magnificate, &c. They were formerly more used than at present.

The

The Romish church has three Sequenze, called Le tre Sequenze dell' Anno, or three Sequenzes of the year, which are Lauda Sion Salvatorem, victimæ Paschali Laudes, veni Sancte Spiritus; these are sung to music in many places; besides these, there is one called Dies iræ dies illa, in the office of burial, which is admirably well set, and on which Legrenza, Lully, and others, have made excellent compositions.

SERENADE, a kind of concert given in the night time by a gallant at his mistress's door, or under her window; sometimes it consists wholly of instrumental music, sometimes voices are added: the pieces composed and played on these oc-

casions are also called Serenatas.

We don't know whence the word should be derived, unless from the French Serein, the dew falling in the night time.

SERPENT, a musical wind instrument, serving as a bass to the Cornet, or a small Shawm, to sustain a chorus of singers in a large vessel. It had it's name Serpent from it's sigure, as consisting of several folds or wreaths serving to take off it's length, which would otherwise be six or seven seet; 'tis usually covered with leather, and consists of three parts; a mouth piece, neck and tail. It has six holes, by means

whereof they give it the compass of two octaves.

SESQUI, a Latin particle, fignifying a whole and a half, which joined with altera, terza, quarta, &c. is much used in the Italian music to express a kind of ratios, particularly the several species of triples. The ratio expressed by Sesqui is the second ratio of inequality, called also super-particular ratio: and is, when the greater terms contains the less once, and some certain part over, as 3:2, where the first term contains the second once, and unity over, which is a quota part of 2. Now if the part remaining be just half the less term, the ratio is called Sesqui altera; if it be a third part of the less term, as 4:3, the ratio is called Sesqui quarta, or tertia; if a fourth, as 5:4, the ratio is Sesqui quarta, and so on to infinity; still adding to Sesqui, the ordinal number of the less term.

In English we may say Sesqui alteral, Sesqui third, fourth,

&c. See PROPORTION.

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As to the kinds of triples expressed by the part cle Sesqui, they are these; the greater perfect Sesqui altera, Sesqui altera maggiore perfetta, which is a triple where the breve is three minims,

and that without a point, thus marked . See BREVE and TRIPLE.

The greater imperfect Sesqui alteral, Sesqui altera maggiore impersetta, which is where the breve pointed, contains three F f 2 minims

minims, but without any point only two, thus mark-

ed . See TRIPLE.

The less perfect Sesqui alteral, Sesqui altera minore perfetta, is where the semi-breve when unpointed, contains three minims $O_{\overline{z}}^3$, but then it is to be followed by other semi-breves. See Breve.

The less impersect Sesqui alteral, Sesqui altera minore impersetta, thus marked $C_{\frac{3}{2}}$, wherein the semibreve with a point contains three minims, and without but two.

According to Bontempi, one may likewise call the triples 5.

and 12 Sefqui alteral, but fee PROPORTION.

SESQUI altera dupla. See TRIPLE.

SESQUI nona See TRIPLE and PROPORTION.

SESQUI octave, is a kind of triple marked C &, called by the Italians, nonupla di crome, where there are nine quavers in every bar, whereof eight are required in common time.

The double Sefqui fourth; or Sefqui quarta dupla is marked thus, C², called by the Italians nonupla di semiminime, where there are nine crotchets in a bar instead of four in common time.

SESQUI terza, the triples 6 and 12 fo, fays Bontempi, may be thus denominated. See Sub, Super and Proportion. See also Dodecupla, Nonupla and Triple.

SESQUIDITONE, a concord resulting from the sound of two strings whose vibrations in equal times are to each other, as 5:6. See DITONE and VIBRATION.

SESTA, the same with fixth. See SIXTH.

SESTUPLA. See SEXTUPLE. SETTIMA. See SEVENTH.

SETTIMANA, Santa. See RESPONSARY and LA-

MENTATIONE.

SEVENTH, a musical interval called by the Greeks Heptachordon, whereof there are four kinds; first, the desective seventh, consisting of three tones and three greater semi-tones; the second, called by Zarlin and the Italians, Demiditono con diapente, or Settima minore, is composed diatonically of seven degrees and six intervals, sour whereof are tones and the rest greater semi-tones; and chromatically of ten semi-tones, six whereof are greater and sour less. It takes it's form from the Ratio quadriparziente quinto, as 9:5.

The third, called by the Italians, il ditono con diapente, or fettimo maggiore, is composed diatonically of seven degrees like the former, and six intervals; sive whereof are tones and a ma-

jor semi-tone, so that only a major semi-tone is wanting to make up the octave; and chromatically of twelve semi-tones, six greater and six less. It takes it's form from the Ratio of 15:8.

The fourth is redundant and composed of five tones, a greater semi-tone and a less, so that it wants only a comma of an octave, that is, so much as to make it's second semi-tone greater, called *Pentatonon*. Hence many confound it with the octave, maintaining (with good reason, says Mr Brossard) that only the three first sevenths can be of any use.

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'The Seventh in the ancient system had but it's double, or even in Guido's system, but in the modern scale it has the twenty-first for it's triplicate, and the twenty-eighth for it's quadriplicate, &c. See INTERVAL.

In thorough basses the Seventh, whether double, simple, major or minor is marked by a figure of 7, but if required by accident to be flat or minor, thus \$\delta\$7, or 7\$\delta\$; if it be sharp or major thus \$\delta\$7 or 7\$\delta\$.

Again, if when it is naturally minor it be marked with a flat, fays Mr Broffard, it must then be diminished, and è contra.

The Seventh diminished may be used in melody either di grado, or per Salto, descending, but very rarely rising. See GRADO and SALTO.

The major and minor Sevenths are absolutely forbidden, especially per Salto in the course of a song, though the Seventh major may be used ascending, but sparingly and not without necessity.

The minor Seventh has often times admirable effects in harmony, and that without syncopation with regard thereto it may be observed

First, That it must be preceded by a third, fifth, octave or

Secondly, That it be followed by a fifth, and fometimes a third.

Thirdly, That it be accompanied with the false fifth and third.

'Tis often used by syncopation in the upper part, and must then be followed by the sixth, the lower part continuing on the same note, or rather descending a semi-tone minor.

The two Sevenths major and minor, says Mr Broffard, are used in harmony these three ways,

First, By supposition, that is, 1st, when they happen to fall on the unaccented part of the measure. See ACCENT, BUONO and CATTIVO; 2dly, when they do not fall upon a note accounted long, in such case they may be preceded or succeeded by any concord whatever, and often by discords.

See Supposition. Secondly,

Secondly, By syncopation, in which it must be observed, 1st, That the Seventh sall on the second part of the syncope; 2dly, That the first part of the syncope be a concord either perfect or impersect. See Concord and Perfect. 3dly, That the part which syncopates never ascend after the seventh, but descend only one degree. Under these circumstances if the treble or any upper part syncopates, the Seventh is resolved by the sixth, sometimes by the fifth, also by the third; and sometimes but very rarely, and with judgment, by the sisth diminished or salse, or even redundant, and never by the octave.

When it is resolved by the fixth, many may be made one after another, but the last must be the fixth major, and must afterwards rise to the octave upon one of the essential chords of the mode: This may also be very well done in the other

manner of refolving it.

If, continues that author, the bass or some lower part syncope (which is now generally practiced, though formerly forbidden) 'tis resolved naturally by the octave; sometimes the fifth or sixth major or minor: but it must be observed that in these two ways of resolving the Seventh, the part which syncopes, contrary to the general rule, must ascend one degree, and the third should seldom or never be used.

The third manner is particularly adapted to the Seventh major, and may be faid to be per softenuto, in which the bass or lower part holds on a note for two or more measures, and after a concord they make a Seventh major, which continues for two three or more measures; after which they rise to an octave, and it must then be accompanied by the fourth, second and sixth, this is marked in thorough bass, thus 7 or #7. This

4 4 2 2

method is very common in Italian recitativos. See RECI-TATIVO and SOSTENUTO.

SEXTA. See SIXTH.

SEXTUPLE denotes a mixed fort of triple which is beaten in double time. See TRIPLE.

This the *Italians* call *festuplo*; the *French* (tho' improperly) the fixth time, according to Mr *Broffard*, it ought rather to be denominated triple binary time. See BINARY.

Authors usually make mention of three species hereof, to which Mr Broffard adds two others, five in all, which are these,

Sextuple of a semi-breve, called by the French triple of fix for one, as being denoted by the numbers ⁶, or because here are required fix semi-breves in a measure in lieu of one in

common

common time, three for the rising, and three for the falling of the hand.

Sextuple of a minim, by them called triple of 6 for 2, beng denoted by those figures, which shews that fix minims must be contained in a bar, whereof two are sufficient in common time.

Sextuple of a crotchet, called triple of 6 for 4, thus marked 2 or C 2, wherein fix crotches are contained in the bar instead of four.

Sextuple of the chrome, denominated 6 for 8, and marked 6, herein fix quavers make a bar or femi-breve, instead of eight in common or duple time.

Sextuple of the femi-chroma, or triple of 6 for 16, so called as being denoted by the figures 75, which requires fix semi-quavers in its bar, whereas 16 are required in duple time. See TIME, TIPLE and COMMON.

SFUGGITO, to avoid, to go out of the common way, not to observe the ordinary rules, as Cadenza Sfuggita is a cadence wherein the bass instead of rising a fourth and falling a fifth, rises only a tone or semi-tone, or falls a tierce or to speak more at large and in general, 'tis when the lower as well as the upper parts omit or avoid their proper and natural conclusions.

SHARP, is a kind of artificial note or character, thus formed #, which being prefixed to any note, shews that it is to be ung or played a semi-tone or half note higher than the note naturally would have been without it, and gives the note the name of the next below it; when the semi-tone takes the name of the note next above it its marked with a character called a flat. See FLAT, DIESIS and CHARACTER.

'Tis indifferent some think in the main which of the two be used, though under particular circumstances, there are reasons for the one rather than the other.

The use of flats and sharps is to remedy the desects of the fixed scale of instruments. See NATURAL and SCALE.

SI, the name for a seventh sound, added within these seventy years by one Le Maire, to the fix ancient notes invented by Guido Aretine, Ut re mi sa sol la; by means whereof, say some authors, the embarrass of the ancient gamut is avoided. But, say they, so busy a thing is jealously that for a matter of thirty years that La Maire kept preaching to the Musicians of his own time in behalf of his new note, not a Man would allow it; and he was no sooner dead than all the musicians of

his country came into it. But notwithstanding this, he is not

esteemed the inventor hereof. See Note.

SI is an Italian preposition, if joined with replica, it intimates that you repeat some part of the song, si replica, si piace, — repeat it if you please. Si Volti, — turn over the Leaf, &c.

SICHISMA. See SCHISMA and COMMA:

SICILIAN, a kind of air or dance in triple time $\frac{5}{8}$, or fometimes $\frac{12}{8}$, played flow; notwithstanding 'tis marked the same as a jigg, which is generally quick.

SIEGUE. See SEGUE.

SIGNA, Signs, such as the notes, marks, and characters of music, whereof there are more than fifty. See Note, Character, Repeat, Pause, &c.

SIGNA Claves. See CHIAVE and SYSTEM. SIGNUM, Moræ ac Conventiæ. See PUNTO.

SIGNUM Repetitionis. See REPRESA.

SILLABA, a Syllable, one of the parts of a word, or often an entire one. This the Italians say of Guido Aretine's words which he used to denominate the sounds of music, such as Ut re mi, &c. by which he cast off the ancient Greek names. See Lyre and Genus.

SIMPHONIA, rather fee SYMPHONY.

SIMPLE, in Italian, Simplice, is chiefly used in oppofition to double; fometimes to a compound of feveral parts, or figures of different values, Gr. Simple cadence, is that where the notes are equal through all the parts. Simple concords are those wherein we hear at least two notes in consonance, as a third and fifth; and of consequence at least three parts, which is either done immediately, and called the harmonical triad, or in a more remote manner, that is, when the founds that are not in the bass, are one or two octaves higher. This distance has no bad effect in the third, but in the fifth it has, and generally speaking the nearer or more immediate the chords are, the better. We also say C simple in opposition to Caccented. Simple counter-point is a harmonical composition, wherein note is set against note, in opposition to figurative counter-point. Simple fugue or simple imitation is where one part imitates the finging of another for some measures. Simple interval. See INTERVAL. Simple triple. See TRIPLE. See also Counter-Boint, IMI-TATION, FUGUE, &c.

SINCOPATION. See SYNCOPATION and SYN-

COPE.

SINGING, the action of making divers inflections of the voice agreeable to the ear, and even answering to the notes notes of a fong, or piece of melody. See Sone and ME-

The first thing done in learning to sing, is to raise a scale of notes by tones and semi-tones to an octave, and descend by the same notes, and then to rise and fall by greater intervals, as third, sourth, fifth, &c. and to do all this by notes of different pitch.

Then these notes are represented by lines and spaces, to which the syllables fa, sol, la, mi are applied, and the pupil taught to name each line and space thereby; whence this practice is called solfaing. The nature, reason, effects, Sc. whereof see under the article of Solfaing.

To become a proficient in vocal as well as inftrumental music, the Gamut is perfectly to be learned, and in singing observe the following Scale.

Treble	Tenor	Bass
	G fol reut fol-	A la mi re la- G fol reut fol
F faut ——fa- E la la	F faut fa E la mi—la-	of the old and
D la fol-fol-	D ta folte fol	F faut — 3: fa-
C fol fa fa B fa b mi — mi-	C fol faut-ti-fa	E la mi la D fol re fol
Alamire la	B fa b mi mi	C faut fa
G fol re ut - fol-	A la mi re — la- G sol re ut sol	Are la
F faut fa	F faut fa-	Gamutfot-
Elami-la-		

There are three things to be observed in this scale, sirst, the names of the notes, which must be learned backwards and forwards till you know them perfectly by heart; secondly, the three cless, which are an inlet to the knowledge of the notes; for if a note be placed on any part of the five lines, (which is also called a stave) you cannot call it any thing till one of those three cless is ser at the beginning; for which reason the lines of the Gamut are divided into three fives; expressing the three parts of music, viz. Treble, Tenor and Bass; every one of these sives lines or staves having a cless,

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for example, the first five lines has this mark, * which is the

G fol re ut, or treble cleff fet at the beginning on the fourth line from the top.

The second or middle stave of five lines, has this mark, which is called the C fol faut, or tenor cleff, set at the

beginning. This cleff may be placed on any of the four lowest lines.

The other stave of five lines has this mark \mathfrak{I} : and is called the F faut or Bass Cleff at the beginning, generally placed on the fourth line from the bottom.

Thirdly, observe the syllables in the second column, which are the names you are to call all the notes by; for example, if a note be placed on the second line of the first scale from the top, and you should be asked where it stands, say in D la sol.

Now in learning these names, you must learn the other syllable with them, that you may know how to call your notes in singing; for example, Gamut is called Sol; A re, la B mi is called mi; C fa ut, fa; D sol re is called sol; E la mi, la; F faut is called fa, &c.

For the notes and their lengths, see Note, Character, Semi-Breve. See also Rest, Repeat, Time, Triple, Gc.

See also BAR, MEASURE, and POINT.

There are two tyings of notes, the first is a curve line, drawn over the heads of two or more notes, and shews they are to be sung to one syllable.

The fecond fort of tied notes are those with straight strokes drawn through the tails of quavers, semi-quavers, and

binding two, three, or more together, as

these with another stroke would be semi-quavers, and with a third demi-semi-quavers. This way of tying has been found useful to the sight.

For flats and sharps, see DIESIS, FLAT and SHARP.
See also NATURAL.

The chief graces in finging are the Trillo and Quaver, both which are much now in use. See QUAVERING.

It is to be performed by making easy small Inflections of the voice on two sounds distant a tone or semi-tone.



First move the voice slow, and then faster and faster by degrees, it will soon be done with ease; care must be taken that

that both a and g be distinctly heard. The shake is to be used on all descending pricked crotchets; also when the note before is on the same line with it, and generally before a close, either in the middle or at the end of a tune.

SI PIACE, if you please, a phrase often met with in

Italian music. See S1.

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SISTEMA. See System. Laborate Com vilation it

SISTRUM, cistrum, or citron, a kind of ancient mufical instrument used by the priests of Iss and Osiris. See Music. 'Tis described by Spon as of an oval form in manner of a racket, with three sticks traversing it breadthwise, which playing freely by the agitation of the whole instrument, yielded a kind of sound, which to them seemed melodious. By some 'tis thought to have been no more than a rattle. Fer. Bossius has an express treatise on the Sistrum, entitled, Isacus de Sistro.

Oiselius observes, that the Sistrum is found represented on several medals, and on Talismans. Osiris on some medals is pictured with a dog's head and a Sistrum in his hand. It may be reckoned among the instruments of Percussion. See

STROMENTO.

SIXTH, one of the simple or original concords or harmonical intervals. See CONCORD.

The Sixth is of two kinds, greater and less, and therefore is esteemed one of the impersect concords, though each of them arise from a different division of the octave. See OCTAVE and INTERVAL.

The greater Sixth is a concord resulting from the mixture of the sounds of two strings, that are to each other as 3:5.

The less from those of two strings in the ratio of 5:8. See SCALE.

The less Sixth is composed diatonically of fix degrees, whence its name, and five intervals, three whereof are tones, and two semi-tones; chromatically of eight semi-tones, five whereof are greater, and three less. It has its form or origin from the ratio super tri partiens quinta.

The greater Sixth is diatonically composed like the other of fix degrees and five intervals, among which sour are tones and one semi-tone; chromatically of nine semi-tones, five whereof are greater and sour less, consequently it hath a less semi-tone more than the former. It has its origin from the Ratio superbi partiens tertia. See Proportion.

Antiently the *ixth* had only one duplicate, which was the thirteenth, even in *Guido's* scale it had no more. But in the modern system it has the twentieth for its triplicate; the twenty seventh for its quadriplicate, &c. every one of which are in-

differently marked in thorough bass by the figure 6. And even the Sixth itself both greater and less when naturally so is not expressed any otherwise than by a simple 6; but if greater or less by accident, the characters of sharp, or flat, are set along with the 6. Again, if, when with the Sixth is naturally minor, a flat be placed with it, it is to be diminished; if naturally major, and a sharp with it, it must be redundant.

Besides these two kinds of Sixths, which are both good concords, there are two others that are vicious and dissonant. The first called the desective Sixth, composed of two tones, and three semi-tones, or of seven semi-tones, sive of which are greater and two less. The second is the redundant Sixth composed of sour tones, a greater semi-tone and a less, whence some call it Pentatonen, as comprehending five tones. These two being both dissonant, should never be used in

melody, and very rarely in harmony.

As to the two consonant Sixths, says Mr Brossard, it was allowed to make only two or three following Sixths, and those mixed major and minor, and by conjoint degrees; but at present we may make as many as we please, as we may thirds; Sixths in reality being no more than thirds inverted: but care is usually taken that the first Sixth that occurs be less, the second greater, and from thence to rise to the octave, because in harmony the major Sixth naturally requires it, as does the minor Sixth the fall to a fifth.

In melody or in the course of a song, we may rise or sall a Sixth minor, and that either in conjoint or disjoint degrees, which is of good effect in lamenting mournful expressions, exclamations, &c. 'Tis not so well with the Sixth major, because its extremities are so difficult to sound, for which reason 'tis placed among the Salti vietati, or intervals absolutely forbidden in the course of a song. See Salto and In-

TERVAL.

SMORZATO intimates that the Bow or Fiddle-stick be drawn to its full length, and that not with the same strength of hand throughout, but bearing lighter and lighter on it by degrees, 'till at last scarce any sound be heard; this word is not much used at present, but was sound by Mr Brossard in the works of Mr. Zotti.

SOAVE, or SOAVEMENT, sweetly or agreeably.

SOGETTO, Subject, is said of a song above or below which some counterpoint is to be made. Contra punto sopra il sogetto, a counterpoint above the subject, is when the lower part is the subject. In this sense it is called Canto fermo. See CANTO.

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When the counterpoint is made below the subject, it is called Contrapunto sotto il sogetto; herein the upper part is the subject. If this subject does not change the figure or situation of notes, be it above or below the counterpoint, 'tis called sogetto invariate, or invariable Subject; if it do change so getto variate, variable Subject.

Sogetto is also used for the words to which some composition

is to be adapted.

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Sogetto, lastly, is a succession of many notes of one, two, or more measures, disposed in such a manner as to form one or more sugues. This is therefore called Sogetto di Fuga, or subject of the sugue.

Fugues usually have but one Subject, but sometimes we find two, three, or more, which the Italians call Contra punti doppi

triplicate, or. See Fugue.

SOL, the fifth note of the gamut, Ut, re, mi, fa, fol.

See Note, GAMUT, and Music.

So L answers to the Lychanos Meson, and its octave Paranete Hyperbolæon of the ancient system. See Lychanos Meson.

We usually distinguish two Sole, one Gre fol, the other G fol ut; 'tis the first that marks the treble cleff. See CLEFF and GAMUT.

SOLFAING, the naming or pronouncing the feveral notes of a fong, by the syllables Ut re mi fa fol, and in learn-

ing to fing. See NOTE.

Of the seven notes in the French scale, Ut, re, mi, fa, fol, la, fi, only four are used among us in singing, as mi, fa, fol, la, though the Italians use the fix first. Their office therein is that by applying them to every note of the scale, it may not only be pronounced with more ease, but chiefly that by them the tones and semi-tones of the natural

fcale may be better marked out and diffinguished.

This design is obtained by the four syllables, mi, fa, fol, la. Thus from fa to fol is a tone, also from fol to la, and la to mi without distinguishing the great and less tone; but from la to fa, also from mi to fa, only a semi-tone. If then these be applied in this order fa fol, la fa, fol la, mi fa, they express the natural series from C, and if they be repeated a second or third octave, we see by them how to express all the different orders of tones and semi-tones in the diatonic scale, and still above mi will stand fa, sol, la, and below it the same inverted la, sol, fa, and one mi is always distant from another an octave, which cannot be said of any of the rest, because after mi ascending, come always fa, sol, la, fa, which are repeated invertedly descending.

To conceive the use of this it is to be remembered, that the first thing in learning to fing, is to make one raise a scale of notes by tones and femi tones to an octave, and descend again by the same, and then to rise and fall by greater intervals, as at a leap, as thirds and fourths, &c. and to do all this by beginning at notes of different pitch; then these notes are represented by lines and spaces, to which these syllables are applied, and the learners taught to name each line and space thereby: which makes what we call folfaing. The use whereof is, that while they are learning to tune the degrees and intervals of found, express'd by notes on a line or space, or learning a fong to which no words are applied, they may do it the better by means of articulate founds; but chiefly that by knowing the degrees and intervals expressed by those syllables, they may more readily know the places of the femi-tones, and the true distance of the notes. See SINGING.

SOLFEGGIARE, Solfizare, or Solmizare, is the using the syllables ut, re, mi, fa, &c. in learning to sing,

otherwise called Solfaing. See SOLFAING.

From this they made what they called Solfeggiamento, which properly intimates no more than the practice above mentioned; but certain compositions, be they fugues or otherwise, of which those syllables are the subject, have this appellation more particularly. Mr Broffard says he has seen very fine pieces of this kind.

The ancients, i. e. those since Guido, learned music in this way, and we have several of their compositions which an-

fwer this description, especially among the Germans.

SOLLECITO, afflicted, pressed, laboured. This word is sometimes used adverbally, to express that a piece is to be played in a mournful manner, sit to enforce grief upon the hearers. It means also carefully and with exactness.

SOLO, fignifies fingly or alone, it is frequently used in pieces of music consisting of several parts, when one part is to perform alone, as solo Fiauto, the Flute alone; Violino solo,

the Violin alone. See PART.

It is also a distinction used in Sonatas for one Violin, one Flute and a Bass, or two Violins, two Flutes, and a Bass; in both cases it is frequently signified by a single letter S.

When two or three parts separte from the grand chorus, the Italians call that part of the piece à doi soli à tre soli,

&c.

SONA, SONATA, SONATINA, SONO, &c. See So-NATA and SUONO. SONATA, by the Italians called Suonata from Suono, found, fignifies a piece of music or composition, wholly to be executed by instruments, and which is with regard to instruments of several kinds, what Cantata is with regard to the voice. See CANTATA.

The Sonata then is properly a grand free harmonious composition, diversified with great variety of motions and expressions, extroardinary and bold strokes and sigures, &c. and all this according to the fancy of the composer, who without confining himself to any general rule of counterpoint, or any fixed number or measure gives a loose to his genius, and runs from one mode, measure, &c. to another, as he thinks fit.

We have Sonatas from one to seven and even eight parts; but usually they are performed by a single Violin, or with two Violins and a thorough Bass for the Harpsichord, and

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frequently a more figured Bass for the Bass Violin. There are many different species of Sonatas, but the Italians reduce them to two kinds, Suonata di Chiefa, that is, one proper for Church music, which commonly begins with a grave folemn motion, fuitable to the dignity of the place and the service; after which they strike into a brisker, gayer, richer manner, and these are what they properly call Sonatas, The other comprehends the Suonata di Camera, fit for chamber music. These are properly a series of little short pieces named from the dances which may be put to them, yet not defigned for dancing, tho' a mafter of that art may have a mind to apply certain positions, and steps thereto; which by his Judgment are made to agree with their motions. They usually begin with a prelude or little Sonata, serving as an introduction to all the rest; afterwards come the Allemand, Pavan, Courant, and other serious dances; after them jiggs, gavots, minuets, chacones, passecailles, and gayer airs, the whole composed in the same tone or mode. See ALLE. MAND, JIGG, MINUET, &c.

SONG, is applied in general to a fingle piece of music, whether contrived for the voice or an instrument. See Music and Composition.

A Song, fays Mr Malcolm, may be compared to an oration; for as in the latter there is a subject, i. e. some person or thing the discourse is referred to, and which is always to be kept in view thro' the whole, so in every regular and melodious Song, there is a note which regulates the rest; wherein the Song begins and at last ends, and which, is, as it were, the principal matter or musical subject, to be regarded in the whole course of the Song; and as in oration there may be several distinct

parts, which refer to particular subjects, yet they must have an evident connection with the principal subject, which regulates the whole; so in melody, that there may be several sub-principal subjects to which the different parts of a Song may belong; but they are themselves under the instuence of the principal subject, and must have a sensible connection with it. This principal or fundamental note of a Song, says he, is called the key thereof.

But this musical subject, as Mr Malcolm terms it, is not, is he pretends, the key; but because, to make this matter clear, would need an example in composition, and as that would be to exceed the bounds of a dictionary, we shall decline it, presupposing, that no practitioner is unacquainted with the difference between the key and subject of a Song, or unable to different the impropriety of using those two terms.

to fignify the fame thing.

SONNET, a kind of composition contained in sourcen verses, viz. two stanzas or measures, of sour each, and two of three each, the eight first verses being all in three rhymes. Tis of Italian origin, and Petrach is allowed to be the Father. It is held the most difficult and artful of all compositions; as requiring the last accuracy and exactness. It is to end with some ingenious thought, the close to be particularly beautiful, or the Sonnet is naught.

In Malberb and some other French poets, we meet with Sonnets where the two sirst stanzas are not in the same rhyme, but they are held irregular; and in effect, a great part of the merit of these pieces, consists in a scrupulous observation of

the rules.

Ronfard, Malherb, Maynard, and Gombaut, have composed abundance of Sonnets; but among two or three thousand, says a very great author, there are scarce two or three worth

any thing.

Pasquier observes, that Du Bellai was the first who introduced Sonnets into France; but Du Bellai himself says, that Melin de St Gellas first converted the Italian Sonnets into French. The word is of Italian original.

SONUS. See Suono and Sound.

SOPRA, above or upper, as nelle parte di fopra, — in the bigher or upper part; di fopra — above; contrapunto fopra il fogetto, — counterpoint above the subsect. See SOGETTO.

SOPRANO, is a name by which the Italians express our canto, haut dessus, or first treble; à doi Soprani, à tre Soprani, — for two or three trebles. See TREBLE, TENOR, and HAUT-DESSUS.

SOSPIRO, a small character called a rest. See it's form under the article CHARACTER and REPEAT. Canone al Sospiro, is a sugue, wherein the parts begin to imitate each other at the distance of a crotchet. As for example, suppose the guide to have begun, the second part rests a crotchet e'er it imitate; and the third observes the same with regard to the second, and so on.

SOSTENUTO, intimates that a found is to be held out in an equal and fleady manner, for one, two, or more times

of a bar.

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SOTTO, below, inferior; Sotto il fogetto, — below the fubject; Nelle parte di Sotto, — in a lower part. See Sopra and Sogetto.

SOUND. The qualities and distinctions of several agitations of air, considered as their disposition, measure &c. may make music. Gaudentius defines it, the state of the voice, neither ascending or descending; and adds, that those of the same degree or pitch of tune, are properly called unisons.

Sound is the object of music, which is nothing but the art of applying Sounds under such circumstances of time and tune,

as to raise agreeable sensations.

The principal affection of Sound whereby it becomes fitted to that end, is that whereby it is distinguished into acute

and grave. See ACUTENESS and GRAVITY.

This difference depends on the nature of the fonorous bcdy, the particular figure and quantity thereof; and even in fome cases, on the part of the body where it is struck; and is that which constitutes what we call different tones. See Tone.

The cause of this difference appears to be no other than the different velocity of the vibrations of the sounding body. In effect, the tone of a Sound is sound, by abundance of experiments, to depend on the nature of those vibrations, whose differences we can conceive no otherwise, than as having different velocities: and since 'tis proved, that the small vibrations of the same chord, are all performed in an equal time, and that the tone of the Sound, which continues for some time after the stroke, is the same from first to last: it sollows, that the tone is necessarily connected with a certain quantity of tune in making each vibration or each wave; or that a certain number of vibrations or waves accomplished in a given time, constitute a certain determinate tone.

From this principle are all the phænomena of tune deduced.

See TUNE

From the same principle arise what we call concords, &c. which are nothing but the results of frequent unions and H h coinci-

coincidences of the vibrations of two sonorous bodies, and consequently of the waves and undulating motions of the air, occasioned thereby. See CONCORD. On the contrary, the result of the less frequent coincidences of those vibrations, is what we call discord. See Discord.

Another confiderable distinction of Sounds, with regard to music, is that whereby they are denominated long or short, not with regard to the sonorous bodies retaining a motion once received, a longer or shorter time, tho' gradually growing weaker; but from the continuation of the impulse of the efficient cause on the sonorous body, for a longer or less time; as the notes of a Violin, &c. which are made longer and shorter by strokes of different length and quickness.

This continuity is properly called a fuccession of several founds, or the effect of several distinct strokes, or repeated impulses on the sonorous body so quick, that we judge one continued sound; especially if it be continued in the same degree of strength; and hence arise the doctrine of measure and

time. See MEASURE and TIME.

Sounds again are diffinguished with regard to music into

fimple and compound, and that two ways.

In the first, a Sound is said to be compound, when a number of successive vibrations of the sonorous body, and the air come so sast upon the ear, that we fancy them the same continued Sound, as in the phænomenon of a circle of fire, caused by putting the fired end of a stick into a quick circular motion; when supposing the stick's end in any part of the circle, the idea we conceive of it there, continues' till the impression is renewed by a sudden return.

A fimple Sound then, with regard to this composition, should be the effect of a single vibration, or of so many vibrations as are necessary to raise in us the idea of Sound. In the second fort of composition, a simple Sound is the pro-

duct of one voice, or one instrument, &c.

A compound Sound confifts of the Sounds of several distinct voices or instruments, all united in the same individual time and measure of duration; i. e. all striking the ear together, whatever their other differences may be. But in this sense again, there is a twofold composition, a natural, and an artificial one.

The natural composition, is that proceeding from the manifold reflexions of the first Sound from adjacent bodies, when the reflexions are not so sudden as to occasion ecchos, but are all in the same tune with the first note. See Resonance.

The

The artificial composition, which alone comes under the Musicians province, is that mixture of several Sounds, which being made by art, the ingredient Sounds are separable and distinguishable from one another. In this sense, the distinct Sounds of several voices or instruments, or the several notes of the same instrument, are called simple Sounds, in contradiction to compound ones; wherein, to answer the end of music, the simple ones must have such an agreement in all relations, chiefly as to acuteness and gravity, as that the ear may receive the mixture with pleasure. See Composition.

Another diffinction of Sounds, with regard to music, is that whereby they are said to be smooth and even, or rough and harsh, also clear and hoarse; the cause of which differences depends on the disposition and state of the sonorous body, or the circumstances of the place; but the ideas of these diffe-

rences must be fought from observation.

Smooth and rough Sounds depend principally on the founding bodies; of these we have a notable instance in strings that are uneven, and not of the same dimensions and constitution

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Mr Perrault, to account for roughness and smoothness, maintains there is no such thing as a simple Sound; but that the sound of the same chord or bell is a compound of the Sounds of the several parts of it; so that where the parts are homogeneous, and the dimensions and figure uniform, these always make such a perfect mixture and union of all the parts, as make one uniform and smooth Sound: contrary conditions produce harshness.

In effect, likeness of parts and figure makes an uniformity of vibrations, whereby a great number of similar and coincident motions conspire to fortify and improve each other, and unite for the more effectual producing the same effect.

This account he confirms from the phænomenon of a bell, which differs in the tone according to the part it is struck in; and yet strike it any where, there is a motion of all the parts. Hence he considers, the bell as composed of an infinite number of rings, which according to their different demensions have different tones, as chords of different lengths have; and when struck, the vibrations of the parts immediately struck specify the tone, being supported by a sufficient number of consonant tones in the other parts. This must be allowed, that every note of a stringed instrument, is the effect of several simple Sounds; for there is not only the Sound resulting from the motion of the string, but that from the motion of the parts of the instrument; which has a considerable effect in the total Sound, as is evident from hence, that

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the same string or different Violins, will give a very different Sound.

But Perrault affirms the same of every string in itself, and without considering the instrument. Every part of the string, says he, has it's particular vibrations, different from the gross and sensible vibrations of the whole; and these are the causes of different motions and Sounds in the particles; which uniting, compose the whole Sound of the string, and make an uniform composition, wherein the tone of the particular part struck, prevails; and all the others mix under a due subordination with it, so as to make the composition smooth and agreeable. If the parts be unevenly or irregularly constituted, the Sound is harsh; which is the case in what we call false strings, and various other bodies, which for this reason, have no certain and distinct tone; but a composition of several tones which don't unite and mix, so as to have one predominant to specify the total tone.

As to clear and hoarse Sounds, they depend on the circumflances that are accidental to sonorous bodies: thus a voice or instrument will be hollow and hoarse if raised within an empty hogshead, that is clear and bright out of it; this effect is owing to the mixture of other and different Sounds, raised by resection, which corrupt and change the species of the

primitive Sound.

For Sounds to be fit to obtain the end of music, they ought to be smooth and clear, especially the first; since without this they cannot have one certain and discernable tone, capable of being compared to others in a certain relation of acuteness, of which the ear may judge; and of consequence can be no part of the object of music. Upon the whole then, with Mr Malcolm, we call that a harmonic or musical Sound, which being clear and even, is agreeable to the ear, and gives a certain discernable tune (and hence called a tunable Sound); which is the subject of the whole theory of harmony. See HARMONY.

SOUND-BOARD, is the principal part of an Organ, and that which makes the whole instrument play. See

ORGAN.

The Sound-Board or Summer, is a refervoir, into which the wind drawn in by the bellows, is conducted by a portvent, and hence distributed into the pipes placed over the holes of it's upper part. The wind enters them by valves, which open by pressing upon the stops or keys, after drawing the registers which prevent the air from going into any of the pipes but those required. Organs, whose longest blind pipes are four feet, have their Sound-boards from five to six feet. Organs of six-

teen

teen feet have two Sound-boards, which communicate the wind from one to the other, by means of a pewter portvent.

SPAGNUOLA, is the name the *Italians* give to the Guittar, by reason of it's being so much used in Spain; or according to some, rather from it's having been invented there. See GUITTAR.

SPATIUM, Space, is applied to the void found between the lines whereon a piece of music is pricked or noted; these at first were not used, but there was a line for every sound: but when those were reduced to sour, and then raised to sive, as at present, the spaces were reckoned, and the lowest was called the first, and so on to the sourth. See RIGA and LINEA.

SPECIES, in the ancient music is a sub-division of one of the Genera. See GENUS.

The Genera of music were three, the chromatic, enharmonic and diatonic; the first and second of which were variously subdivided into Species; nor was even the last without, though those had not particular names as the Species of the other two had. The Species were called Chroia, colours of the genera, the constitution whereof, see under the articles Genus, Diatonic, Enharmonic, and Chromatic.

SPESSO. See Spissus.

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SPICCATO, fignifies to feparate, divide, part, &c. that is, to give every note it's distinct found, and is the contrary of what we call flurring.

This word is particularly used with regard to instruments struck with a bow, and denotes that every note have a bow distinct from the preceeding or succeeding one.

SPINETTE, a musical instrument ranked in the second or third place among harmonious instruments. See Music.

It consists of a chest or belly made of the most porous and resinous wood to be sound, and a table of firr fastened on rods called the sound-board, which bears on the sides; on the table is raised two little prominences or bridges, whereon are placed so many pins as there are chords to the instrument. See BRIDGE and OTAVINA.

This instrument is played by two ranges of continued keys; the foremost range being the order of the diatonic scale, and that behind, the order of the artificial notes or semi-tones. See Scale.

The keys are so many long flat pieces of wood, which touched and pressed down at the end, make the other raise jacks, which strike the strings and cause the sound, by means of the end of a crow's quill wherewith 'tis armed. The thirty first strings are of brass, the other more delicate ones

of steel or iron-wire; which are stretched over the bridges above-mentioned. Tho' many of these instruments have either all their strings of brass or all of steel-wire; and have sometimes two or three jacks to each string instead of one; upon which the makers add a little stop to take away one or two of the three at pleasure, by which means the sound when struck with one jack only, seems in some measure to eccho to that struck with the whole number.

The figure of the Spinette is a long square or parallelogram; some call it the Harp couched, and the Harp an inverted

Spinette. See HARP.

The Spinette is generally tuned by the ear, which method of the practical musicians is founded on a supposition that the ear is a perfect judge of an octave and fifth. The general rule is to begin at a certain note, as C, taken toward the middle of the instrument, and tuning all the octaves up and down, and also the fifths, reckoning seven semi-tones to each fifth,

by which means the whole is tuned.

Sometimes to the common or fundamental play of the Spinette is added another similar one in unison, and a third in octave to the first, to make the harmony the fuller. They are either played separately or together, by means of a stop; these are called double or triple Spinettes. Sometimes a play of Violins is added by means of a bow, or a few wheels parallel to the keys which press the strings, and make the sound last as long as the musician pleases, and heighten and soften them more or less as they are more or less pressed.

The Harpfichord is a fort of Spinette, only with another

disposition of the keys. See HARPSICHORD.

There have been of late years Spinettes made, whose backward range of keys are divided, each part of which has a different sound; as there is one key between f and g, which serves as f # and $g \implies$; now this key being divided, that part of it next the player sounds $g \implies$, and the other next the body of the instrument f #, and so of the others. Again,

as we often use C, for B sharp; in these Spinettes there is a key placed between B natural and C, which serves as B. But those instruments having some difficulties attending them were laid aside.

This instrument takes it's name from the little quills wherewith the strings are struck, which are supposed to resemble thorns, which in Latin are called Spinæ.

SPIRITO, or SPIRITOSO, fignifies to fing or play on

any instrument with vigour, life, and spirit.

SPIS-

SPISSUS, thick, full, as of small or minute parts, as of intervals The Greeks called it Pycknos, it was an epithet they gave to two of the genera of music, the chromatic and enharmonic; the first whereof had twelve small sensible intervals in the extent of it's octave, the latter twenty four; both of which are thick, full, or even crouded with minute intervals, when compared with the diatonic, which is quite simple, and whose intervals are spacious, having but seven in it's octave, and these by consequence greater than those of the two others, the octave being the same in all. From hence the Italians say, Monochordo inspessato delle chorde Chromatice Enharmonice, i. e. a monochord whose string is divided into such parts as constitute the small intervals of either of those genera, by which we may measure the proportions of their sounds, &c. See DIATONIC, &c.

Bacchius senior says, that this Spissus consists of two of the smallest or more minute intervals in either of the genera.

SPONDEASMUS, is when in the enharmonic genus a found is raised three dieses. See Dissolutio and Pro-JECTIO.

STABILI Suoni. See SUONI.

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What the ancients called Stabiles or fixed founds, Euclid fays were these eight, Proslambanomenos, Hypate Hypaton, Hypate Meson, Mese, Nete Synemmenon, Paramese, Nete Diezeugmenon, Nete Hyperbolæon; of these, says Alypius, some are called Barypicni, others Apicni; the Baripicni, were these sive, Hypate Hypaton, Hypate Meson, Mese, Paramese, Nete Diezeugmenon. The Apicni were these three, Proslambanomenos, Nete Synemmenon, and Nete Hyperbolæon. These says Bacchius senior were in general called Stantes, by reason they maintain the same situation in the sourth, in whatever genus they are used.

ŚTACCATO, or STOCCATO, fignifies to divide and feparate each note from the next in a very plain and diffinct manner, and is much the fame with Spiccato. See SPICCATO.

STAFF, five lines on which, with the intermediate fpaces, the notes of a fong or piece of music are marked. See Music.

Guido Aretine, the great improver of the modern music, is said to be the first who introduced the Staff, marking his notes by setting points (.) up and down them, to denote the rise and sall of the voice; and each line and space he marked at the beginning of the Staff with Pope Gregory's seven letters, A, B, C, D, E, F, G. See Note.

But

But others will have this practice of an older date; and Kercher particularly affirms, that in the Jesuits library at Messina, he found a Greek manuscript of hymns above seven hundred years old, wherein some hymns were written on a Staff of eight lines marked at the beginning with eight Greek letters, the notes or points were on the lines, but no use made of the spaces; but this is not much against Guido, for he used but five lines, and set his notes both on them and the spaces. But Wossina says this was the practice of the Egyptians before Guido's time. See GAMUT and SCALE.

STENTATO, from the verb Stentare, to Suffer, to labour; intimates not only that you proceed, but that you take pains in finging or playing, and force the voice in some part of a song, or on some particular sound, to express some extraordinary emotion, whether joy, grief, or passion, so as to seem actually moved in the performance. Mr Brossard brings the word from the samous Stentor mentioned by

Homer, who had a very strong voice.

STENTOROPHONIC TUBE, a Speaking Trumpet, thus called from Stentor, (a person mentioned in the Vth Book of the Illiad, who could call louder than fifty men) and Quyn, voice.

That of Alexander the Great is famous, with which he could give orders to his army at 100 stadias distance. See TTUMPET.

STRETTO, *shortned*, is often used to signify that the measure is to be short and concise, therefore quick. In this sense it stands opposed to large. See LARGO.

STRING in music. See CHORD.

If two Strings or chords of a musical instrument differ only in length, their tones, i. e. the number of the vibrations they make in the same time, are in an inverted ratio of their lengths; if they differ only in thickness, their sounds are in an inverted ratio of their diameters. As to the tension of Strings to measure it regularly, they must be conceived as stretched and drawn by weights, then (ceteris paribus) their sounds will be in a direct ratio of the square roots of the weights which stretch them, that is, e. g. the tone of a String stretched by a weight 4, is an octave above the tone of a String stretched by a weight 1.

'Tis an observation of a long standing, that if a Viol or Lute String be touched with the bow or hand, another String on the same, or another instrument not far from it, if in unison, octave, or the like, will at the same time tremble of

it's own accord. See Unison.

But it is now found, that not the whole of that other String doth tremble thus, but the feveral parts feverally, according cording as they are unifons to the whole or parts of the String fo struck. Thus,

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Supposing A B to be an upper octave to A C, and therefore a unifon to each, half thereof floped at B.

A — B a - 4 - c

If while a c is open, A B be struck, the two halves of this other, that is a b and b c will both tremble; but the middle point will be at rest; as will be easily perceived by wrapping a bit of paper lightly round the String a c, and removing it from one end of the String to the other. In like manner were A B an upper twelfth to a c, and consequently an unison to it's three parts a 1, 12, and 2 c; if ac being open, A B be struck, it's three parts, a 1, 12, and 2 c, will severally tremble; but then the points I and 2 will remain at This Dr Wallis tells, was first discovered by Mr William Noble of Merton College; and after him, by Mr Pigot of Wadham College, without knowing that Mr Noble had ob-To which we may add, that Mr Sauveur long afterwards proposed it to the Royal Academy at Paris as his own discovery, as like enough it might: but upon his being informed by some of the members present, that Dr Wallis had published it before, he immediately refigned all the honour thereof.

STROMENTO, plural ftromenti, instruments, certain machines contrived and disposed by art in such a manner, as to be of use in imitating the sound of a human voice; the music played or performed by these, is commonly called organical or instrumental. See ORGANICAL.

Instruments are of many kinds, but are generally reduced under three heads:

First, what the Greeks called enchorda or entata, are instruments having chords or strings, made to sound by the fingers, as the Lute, Harp, Theorbo, Guittar, and others; or that are played on by a bow, as Violins, Bass Viols, Trumpet Marine, &c. or by means of jacks armed with quills ends, as Spinets, Harpsichords, &c.

The fecond, by the Greeks call emphysomena, pneumatica, or empneousta, that are made to sound by the wind, and that either natural from the mouth, as Flutes, Trumpets, Hautboys, Bassons, Serpents, Sackbuts, Horns, &c. or artificial by means of bellows, as the Bagpipe; and that which by way of excellence is called the Organ, by the Italians called Stromenti da state.

The last, the Greeks call Krousta, the Latins, Pulsatilia, and we instruments of percussion; because made to sound by beating them either with the hand, as Drums, Tabours, I i Tymbals Tymbals, &c. or with a little stick, or small iron rod, as Psaltery and Cymbal; or with a feather, as the Systrum and Dulcimer, or by striking them with hammers, as Bells, &c. Kercher, Mersenus, Salmon des Caux, and other learned writers, have given us descriptions of most of these instruments, which may be found in their works, and which may give a curious reader great satisfaction.

STROPHE, a certain number of verses which contain a full sense, and at the end whereof a composer ought to make a cadence (unless there be some cause to the contrary) before he begins another of the same nature. See Song.

STYLE, a manner of finging, playing, or composing. The Style is properly the manner each person has either of composing, playing, singing or teaching; which is very different, both with respect to different genius's, of countries, nations, and of the different matters, places, times, subjects, passions, expressions, &c.

Thus we say, the Style of Palestrina, of Lully, and of Corelli; the Style of the Italians, French, Spaniards, &c. The Style of gay pieces of music is very different from that of serious ones. The Style of church music is very different

from that for theatres.

The Style of the Italian compositions is poignant, florid, expressive; that of the French, natural, slowing, tender, &c.

Hence the various epithets given to distinguish the various characters; as, the antient and modern Style; the Italian and German Styles; the ecclesiastical and dramatic Styles; the gay, the grave, majestic, natural, soft, familiar, gallant, low, sublime, &c. Styles.

The Style Recitative, or dramatice, in the Italian music, is a Style fit to express the passions. The Style ecclesiastice is full of majesty; very grave, and fit to inspire devotion.

STYLO Motectico, is a various, rich, florid Style, capable of all kinds of ornaments, and of consequence fit to express various passions; particularly admiration, grief, &c.

STYLO Madrigalesco, is a Style proper for love, and other

of the foft paffions.

STYLO Hyperchematico, is a Style proper to excite joy, mirth, and dancing, and consequently full of brisk and gay motions.

STYLO Symphoniaco, is a Style fit for inftrumental music; but as each inftrument has its particular effects, there are as many different symphonical Styles; the Style of the Violin for instance, is usually gay; that of Flutes melancholly and languishing; and that of Trumpets sprightly and animating.

STYLO Melismatico, is a natural artless Style, which any

body almost can fing, fit for airs and ballads.

STYLO Phantastico, is an easy humorous manner of composition, free from all constraints, &c. See SUONATA and RICERCATA. Before sonatas were introduced, they had a kind of piece which they called *Phantasia*, which was very like our sonata.

STYLO Choraico, a Style that is proper for dancing, and is divided into as many different kinds as there are different dances, as the Style of farabands, minuets, gavots, jiggs, ri-

gadoons, chacones, &c.

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SUB, a Latin preposition, signifying the same as the Greek Hypo, the Italian Sotto, and the English below. See

PROPORTION and Hypo.

This word is often used instead of Hypo in conjunction with the Greek names of the intervals of music, as fub diatessaron, diapente, diapason, though not with the greatest propriety, and this sometimes with regard to several voices sollowing one another at certain pitches, the second below the first, the third below the second, and so on, in the same manner as Epi. See Epi.

For what has been faid of this preposition with regard to proportion, see PROPORTION. 'Twas from thence the Italians took it's use in their several forts of TRIPLES, as

Subsesqui terza, Tripla di semiminime, or the measure of three for four which is marked thus after the Cleff C_+^3 , wherein a crotchet which is their semi-minim is equal to one third of the semi-breve, and the other notes in proportion, whereas in common time it is but a fourth thereof.

Subdupla, or fub fuper bi partiente terza, or tripla di crome, is three for eight C_8^3 , a quaver herein is one third of

the measure, and a pointed crotchet a bar.

Sub super setti partiente nona, otherwise Nonupla di semicrome, or nine sor sixteen; because it requires three semi-quavers in a time, therefore nine in a bar instead of sixteen in common time, 'tis thus marked C.'6. See TRIPLE.

Subdupla subsuper bi partiente terza is 3. See TRIPLE. Sub super bi partiente sesta or sestupla di Crome. See

SEXTUPLPLE.

Subsuper quadri partiente duodecima or $\frac{1}{16}$, called by the Italians dodecupla di semi crome. Tis a species of triple that has twelve semi-quavers in its bar instead of sitxeen in common time, and thus marked C_{12}^{12} . See Triple.

SUBITO, quick, bastily, as volti subito is an Italian

phrase which signifies turn over the leaf quickly.

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SUB-

SUBPRINCIPALIS Mediarum & Principalium. See PARHYPATE MESON, PAHYPATE HYPATON, and System.

SUCCESSION, when applied to music, may be defined to be when a continued series of sounds follow or succeed each other, and may be reckoned one of the differences between melody and harmony; (see Melody) for a continued Succession of sounds produces the former, as a combination of them the latter.

Of Succession there are two kinds, conjoint and disjoint; conjoint Succession is when the founds proceed from grave to acute, or è contra, which make the two species of ductus, viz. Ductus rectus, and revertens, without making any leap, that is, suppose we were to raise or fall a sound a sourth, &c. and to sound all its intermediate degrees, this would be conjoint Sceession, whereas were we to strike only the first and last sounds it would be disjoint. See Ductus.

SVEGLIATO, a brisk, lively, gay manner of finging

or playing, as Maniera Svegliata.

SUFFOLO. See Zufolo.

SUMMUS. See TRIAS HARMONICA.

SUMP.TIO. See Usus.

SUONANTINA, a little short easy Sonata. See SONATA.

SUONATA, or SONATA, the name of certain pieces of inftrumental music of two forts, the one for churches, &c. the other for chambers and private concerts. See SONATA, and CONCERTO.

SUONO, what the Greeks call Pthongos, the Latins Somus, and we Sound, for a definition hereof fee Sound.

This word is often comfounded with vox, voice, chord, tone, note, &c. as that nothing is more common than to fay the chord, tone, note, or found A or B, to distinguish the found expressed by those letters; but see their distinctions under the articles Tone, Note, and Chord.

Musicians ordinarily distinguish three forts of sounds, viz. grave or low, high or shrill sounds, and sounds that keep a middle place; and besides these there is an infinity of other

differences, some of which we shall here ennumerate.

SUONI Alterati, such as are raised or lowered by these marks # # or # b commonly flats and sharps. See FLAT and SHARP.

SUONI Antifoni, is such as though distant from one another one or more octaves, are yet alternate concords among themselves.

SUONI Apicnoi or Apicni, are those between such as the ancients called stabiles or perpetui, and in their system

were

were Proflambanomenos, Nete Synemmenon, and Nete Hyperbo-

læon, see each under its proper Article.

SUONI Baripicni, those which the ancients called immobiles, stabiles, or perpetui, of which rank were the Hypate Hypaton, Hypate Meson, Mese, Paramese, and Nete Diezeugmenon, see each in its place.

SUONI Chromatici, are founds raised above their natural pitch a semi-tone minor by the chromatic diesis . See

CHROMATIC.

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SUONI Consoni, are what we otherwise term concords. See CONCORD.

SUONI Continui, such sounds as are held out or continued for the pronunciation of some syllable, or the state of the voice, neither ascending or descending, but keeping in the same pitch.

SUONI Diafoni, the same with discords. See Discord.

SUONI Diatonici, natural and most easy sounds, such as a man is qualified to sing, or has proper organ well disposed for that pupose, without the affistance of art. See DIATONIC and GENUS.

SUONI Diffoni, the same with Suoni Diafoni, discordant

founds. See DISCORD.

SUONI Distincti sounds sensibly separated or distinguished one from another, be it from the different tensions of the voice or chords that form them, or any other cause. See STRING and CHORD.

SUONI Ecmeli, founds unfit for melody, but then as there is no found but may be used, to make this intelligible, suppose a song to proceed in a particular kind of sourth as from A to D according to the order of B quadro or natural, any sound that has not a super particular ratio, which of consequence must have some supersluity or redundance, may properly be called a Sonus Ecmelos, and is not proper to be brought in.

SUONI Emmeli, such sounds as are capable of making me-

lodies, and therefore fays Boëtius contrary to Ecmeli.

SUONI Enharmonici, are founds raised above their natural pitch by means of the Enharmonic Diesis, which is agreed to be about a quarter of a tone, and which is the least sensible interval in music. See DIESIS and ENHARMONIC.

SUONI equi soni is most properly applicable to unisons, yet tis said of such sounds, which, though different and distinct one from another, yet when sounded together affect the ear in such a manner, as that they seem one and the same sound, of the same pitch of tune. Such are the extreams of the octave and its double.

SUONI

SUONI Homophoni, the same with unison. See UNISON. SUONI Mesopicni, are amongst those which the ancients called Mobiles or Vagantes, and in their system they were these five, Parhypate Hypaton, Parhypate Meson, Trite Synemmenon, Trite Diezeugmenon, and Trite Hyperbolæon. See each in its place.

SUONI Mobiles, moveable founds; the fecond and third founds of every tetrachord of the ancient system were move-

able. See GENUS.

SUONI Naturali, the same with Diatonici. See DIA-TONIC.

SUONI non Unissoni, such as differ in gravity and acuteness;

of this rank are, Consoni, Emmeli, Dissoni and Ecmeli.

SUONI Oxipicni; those sounds between the moveable ones in the ancient system, which were these five, Lychanos Hypaton, Lychanos Meson, Paranete Synemmenon, Paranete Diezeugmenon, and Paranete Hyperbolaon, and these were the last notes but one of every tetrachord in their scale. See each in its place; see also System.

SUONI Parafoni, or fuch founds as have between them the interval of a fourth or a fifth, or their double, and there-

fore concord.

SUONI Stabili, or perpetui, were eight founds in the ancient system, which were the highest and the lowest of every tetrachord: they were thus denominated by reason they could not change their place by means of Dieses, either chromatic or enharmonic, but always remain in the same situation in whatever genus they are used, in opposition to the two middle ones, which were liable to such changes, and therefore called Mesopicni and Oxipicni, which properly belong to the Enharmonic and Chromatic Genera. There are two sorts of stabiles or suoni perpetui, Oxpicni and Baripicni (which see.)

'Tis not thus (fays Mr Broffard) in the modern fystem, for there is no sound therein, but may be alter'd by an accidental flat or sharp, Θ or #; so that among us, says he, all the sounds are moveable or vagantes; but this must be understood that then we shift the key, and play more according to fancy than rule, for every particular key in the modern as well as the ancient system has in it particular sounds, which are immobiles, stabiles,

or perpetui.

SUONI Vagantes, the same as Suoni mobiles.

SUON I Unisson, the same with Homophoni. See UNISON: Besides these distinctions there are many others, as sweet, clear, soft, smooth, rough, and uneven sounds. See Sound.

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Synemmenon Tetrachord.

4 Nete Hyperbolacon	Mobilis 2 Trite Hyperbolaon F Melopicnos Hyper	- 1 + 4 Nete Diezeugmenon -	Mobilis 2 Trite Diezeug menon C Mesopicnos Diezeugm4th	Stabilis — I Paramese — B Baripenos	Stabilis A Mese A Baripicnos Diezeuxis	s Mejon	- I + 4 Hypate Meson -	Mobilis —— 2 Parhypate Hypaton —— C Melopicnos Hypaton 4th Mobilis —— 3 Lychanos Hypaton —— D Oxipicnos \(\sigma_2 \)	1 Hypate Hypaton
Lake Half Molini Tyd	Hyperbal. 4th	douk	Diezeugm4th		Diezeuxis	Meson 4th	oqdou	Hypaton 4th	no no

SUPER

SUPER bi partiente quarta and super quadri partiente duodecima, is a sort of proportion. See Proportion.

This again, is a fort of Triple, which the *Italian* call Seftuplo di Semiminime, and triple of fix for four, thus marked after the Cleff C ⁶/₄, in which fix crotchets are required to compleat the bar, instead of four in common time. See TRIPLE.

SUPER bi partiente Terza. See PROPORTION.

SUPER quadri partiente duodecima, or dodeupla di Crome, is a species of triple, wherein twelve quavers are contained in a bar instead of eight in common time, thus signified after the Cleff $C_{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Super quadri partiente Oct. See Proportion and Triple.

SUPERNUMERARY, in music, called by the Greeks, Proflambanomenos, is the last chord added to their system, answering to the A mi la of the first Octave of the modern scale. See DIAGRAM.

SUPPOSITION, is the using two successive notes of equal value as to time, one of which being a discord sup-

poses the other a concord. See HARMONY.

The harmony Mr Malcolm observes, is to be always full on the accented part of the measure or bar, and void of discords, yet here discords by proper resolution and preparation are even necessary, and must be used, otherwise called passing notes; on the unaccented part of the measure discords by conjoint degrees may pass without much offence, and it is not there required, that the harmony be so compleat as on the accented part. This transient use of discords followed by concords, makes what we from the French call Supposition. See Concord and Discord.

There are several kinds of Supposition; the first when the parts proceed gradually from concord to discord, or è contra from discord to concord, the intervening discord serving only as a transition to the following concord.

Another kind is, when the parts do not proceed gradually from discord to concord, and vice versa; but descend to it by the distance of a third.

A third kind, like the fecond, is when the rifing to the discord is gradual, but the descending from it to the following

concord, is by the distance of a fourth.

A fourth kind, very different from all the rest, is, when the discords fall on the accented part of the measure; and the rising to it is by the interval of a fourth; in which case it is absolutely necessary to follow it immediately, by a gradual descent

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descent into a concord, that has just been heard in the harmony, to make the preceeding discord pass without notice, and only seem a transition into the concord.

Mr Broffard lays us down the following rules of Supposition: In the first he says, the notes of the part that moves while the other holds out, or continues on a sound, must proceed by conjoint degrees; if they proceed otherwise, that is disjoint, they must be all concords.

Secondly. If two notes are played to one of another part, the first must be concord, the second only may be discord; which nevertheless must be followed by a concord in conjoint degrees, either rising or falling.

Thirdly. If four notes are played to one of another part, as four crotchets to a femi-breve, only the fecond and fourth are allowed to be discords; and consequently the first and third, by a gradual ascent or descent are to be concords. The first of every two being reckoned long or accented, must be concords, the second and sourth short or unaccented, may be discord. See Accent.

Fourthly. When three Notes are played to one, they must all be of equal value, as in the measure $\frac{6}{4}$ or, $\frac{12}{8}$ or, the second must, and sometimes, though very rarely, the third may be discord, and the first always concord.

If the first of these three be as long as the two other, it must be concord (very rarely discord) the second and third may be discord, or either of them at pleasure.

If the last be as long as the two first, the first of them must be concord, the second discord, and the long note may be either as occasion serves.

Lastly. If these three notes be of equal value, but preceded by a pause equal to one of them, the first of those left may be a discord, because the pause is reckoned in the place of the concord.

I know, fays that Author, these rules are not so regularly observed as they ought; for sometimes, when sour crotch to are played to a semi-breve, the second is made discord, tho not proceeding by conjoint degrees, the third and sourth concords; sometimes the first and third are concords, the second and sourth discords, or even the first, second and sourth concords, and the third only a discord. Very often, continues he, sour semi-quavers, tho' in different degrees of tune, are reckoned for one crotchet; but 'tis the quickness of the motion, or the necessity of savouring some expression, that in some measure excuses these irregularities; and the less common they are the better.

SUPRA. See EPI and HYPER.

SY, one of the syllables used by the French to express a certain found in the scale of music; for it's invention see SI.

The note expressed hereby answers to the Hypate Hypaton of the ancient system, and also the Paramese it's octave, when natural; but if it have this character before it, 'tis the Trite Synemmenon of their scale, and our B moll or flat. See Hy. PATE HYPATON, TRITE SYNEMMENON, PARA-MESE and SYSTEM.

SYMPHONIALE, a word often prefix'd to a canon or fugue, to shew that it is in unison, i. e. that the fecond part is to follow or imitate the first in the same intervals, founds, notes, &c. the third to observe the same with regard to the second, and so on. See SYMPHONY.

SYMPHONY, in music, a consonance or concert of feveral founds agreeable to the ear, be they vocal or inftrumental, or both; and may be also called harmony. See HAR-MONY.

Some there are, who restrain Symphony to the sole music of instruments: In this sense they say the Recitatives of such an opera were intolerable, but the Symphonies excellent. SON G.

The ancient Symphony, most modern writers are apt to think, went no farther, than two or more voices or inftruments fet to unison. Mr Perrault has endeavoured to prove. that they had no fuch thing as music in parts; at least, says he, if they ever knew fuch a thing, it must be allowed to have been loft. See SYNAULIA.

'Tis to Guido Aretine we owe the invention of compositions in parts; 'twas he first joined in one harmony several distinct melodies; and brought it even to the length of four parts, as bass, tenor, counter-tenor, and treble. See HARMONY, MELODY, TREBLE, &c.

SYNAPHE, a Greek term which fignifies, according to Boëtius, Bacchius senior, and others, conjunction; a chord is faid to be conjoint, when so placed between two fourths, that it is at the same time the highest of the fourth below it, and lowest of that above it.

Bacchius senior gives us three Synaphes; for, says he, there are five tetracords, Hypaton, Meson, Synemmenon, Diezeugmenon and Hyperbolæon; now the Hypaton tetracord is joined to the Meson by Hypate Meson, and Meson to Synemmenon by Mefe, and Diezeugmenon to Hyperbolaon by Nete Diezeugmenon, i. e. there is a found or chord in each of these tetracords or fourths, that serves as the highest of one and lowest of the other.

SYNAULIA, in the ancient music and concert of

pipes performing alternately without finging.

Mr Malcolm, who doubts whether the ancients had properly any fuch thing as instrumental music composed wholly for instruments, without singing, yet quotes the practice of Synaulia from Athenaus. See Song, Symphony, Harmony, Music and Singing.

SYNCOPATION, denotes a striking or breaking of the time, whereby the distinction of the several times, that is parts of the measure, is interrupted. See TIME and MEA-

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Or it is more particularly used for the connecting the last note of one bar with the first of a following one, so as to make only one note of both; 'tis also sometimes used in the middle of a measure; likewise when a note of one part ends or terminates in the middle of a note of the other; but this is

otherwife called binding or legature.

Syncopation is used also for a driving note, i. e. when some shorter note at the beginning of a measure or half measure, is sollowed by two, three or more longer notes, before any other occurs equal to that which occasioned the driving note, to make the number even; e. gr. when an odd crotchet comes before two or three minims, or an odd quaver before two or more crotchets, &c.

SYNCOPATO Contrapunto. See SYNCOPE and

COUNTERPOINT.

SYNCOPE, fignifys the division of a note, used when two or more notes of one part answer to a single one of the other, as when the semi-breve of the one answers to two or three notes of the other.

But to have a right understanding of the word Syncope, it must be observed first, that every bar in common time has two parts, one of which is when the hand falls, the other when it rises.

Secondly, That any note which contains two times, or a rise and fall of the hand is divisible into two parts, for the first whereof the hand goes down, for the last it rises.

Thirdly, That every note (tho' of less value than a semibreve) being divisible into two others, the first thereof must be during the first part of the measure, or with a rise or fall

of the hand, the other part in the fecond.

When notes do not follow this natural order, that is, when the first part is not during the rise, and the other during the fall of the hand; or when the first part of the note is not made in the first part or instant of the rise or fall of the hand, it is said to be syncopated, from synkopto, ferio, verbero, — I

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frike, I beat; thus to diffinguish the times of the measure; consequently when one or more notes are placed between two others, which are but half the value of that in the middle,

as por or or or or the first whereof is made with a fall, or in the instant of a rise or fall; or when instead of that first note there is a pause of its length, as

or or if instead of such first note, there are two

equal to it, as these may be most properly said

to be fyncopated; and are in music what feet are in poetry.

It must also be remarked, that Syncopes are writ three ways; first, by a figure only, which was the practice of the ancients, 'till those perpendicular lines, which we call bars, were used; when the note was divided into two others, each of which was its half, they marked it with a semi-circle, to shew that those two make but one: This makes what the Italians call Note legate, and is used by reason one of the notes is in the latter part of a bar, and the other in the beginning of the next following.

The third, which was highly disapproved by the ancients, and which at present is very much used, is, when for the application of some word, or to give a brisker motion to the song, the notes so parted by the bar, were free and untyed. It often happens, that the first of those two notes is divided into two others of less value; and this may be done two ways; the first is, by adding a point to the first of the two notes that form this sub-division, and sollowing it with another of equal value with it's point; the second is, when both of them are of equal length. All these ways are com-

mon in the modern practice, but should not be used without necessity, or for some particular reason.

SYNCOPE, is often used in melody, or in the course of a song, in mournful languishing expressions; sometimes to express sighs, and very often on the contrary in quick movements, to excite joy; then causing certain leaps or springs among the notes proper to that end. But it's greatest use is in harmony, being as it were the life of it, by giving means of forming that agreeable contrast between concords and discords, which makes the chief beauty of the modern music;

and is that part of the science, in which, says Mr Brossard, we have any reason to think, we excel the ancients.

With respect to harmony there are three Syncopes:

The first is, when all the parts syncope at the same time, but without discords; thinking it enough to move uniformly, contrary to the natural order of the measure. This the Latins call Syncope equivagans, it is not allowed to be any thing excellent by judges of harmony; and therefore is very seldom met with.

The second, little better than the first, is, when only one of the parts syncopes, and yet without discord. In Italians 'tis called Contrapunto legato, because the syncoped notes must be tyed; the Latins term it Syncope consonans desolata.

The last is, when only one part syncopes, and that to bring in some discord, and is the Contrapunto syncopato of the Ita-

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This is the principal; we shall therefore give the reader

fome observations hereon.

First then, the discord must not be on the syncoped note; a concord there is indispensable, whether perfect, as octave and fifth, or imperfect, as third and fixth, as well major as minor. This makes what is otherwise called preparing of discords, see Discord, where the manner of preparing and resolving them is explained. The fourth indeed, which in the opinion of some is a concord, of others a discord, but more generally allowed both by the ancient and modern Theorists to be a concord, is often placed on the first part of the Syncope, especially to form a cadence; and as it is accounted a concord, this does not contradict the rule abovementioned.

We also find sevenths, ninths, &c. on the first part of the Syncope; but as these dissonances must continue on the second part also, and the bas hold on the same note, this ought rather to be reckoned supposition than Syncope. See Supposition

SITION.

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Secondly, According to the modern practice, any discord but the redundant or defective eights and defective fecond may be admitted on the second part of the Syncope. The ancients, says Mr Brossard, only used the ninth, seventh and second fometimes, but very rarely, the false fifth and tritone; and never any other discordant interval, whether superstuous or defective.

Thirdly, The discord must not rest upon the Syncope more than one time of the measure; and if at any time it be necessary upon any occasion to divide the second part of the Syncope into two, the second note must not be upon the same

in Greet tetracords, added stricing the other four of

degree with the syncoped note, but on the degree below it, or

that which refolves it into a concord.

Fourthly, For it is not enough to make and prepare a difcord, but it must be resolved, that is, it must be followed either mediately or immediately by a concord; and first, this must be done in the time of the measure following the Syncope; secondly, the part that syncopes must never rise, but on the contrary must fall on the degree immediately below the fyncoped note; never lower, for that is the found that refolves the discord.

Fifthly, We say mediately, because often they fall on the third, after having passed a false fifth, before resolving the fyncoped discord; sometimes before falling on that third, a syncoped fourth is passed, to which the false fifth stands as a

preparation.

Sixthly, The third rule above is in all appearance evaded two ways in modern practice; the first is, dividing the second part of the syncoped note into two, three, or more of less value, before falling on the note which refolves it; the fecond is, by dividing the fecond part of the Syncope into two equal parts, the first whereof rests on the same degree with the syncoped note; the second (which may be subdivided in any number of less value) rises or falls to one of the cords in the accompanyment of the discord, before it comes to the note which ought to refolve it.

The following is a table from the Documenti armonici di Angelo Berrardi, which shews at once what the concords are, that refolve each distance the most naturally, whether the up-

per or lower part Syncope.

syncopes.

The 2d is resolved by unison, The 4th by the 3d, The 7th by the 5th or 6th, The 9th by the 8th, The 11th by the 10th. Sc.

When the treble or upper part | When the bass or lower part lyncopes.

> The 2d is resolved by the 3d, The 4th by the 5th, The 7th by the 8th, The 9th by the 10th, The 11th by the 12th, &c.

SYNCOPSIS. See SYNCOPE.

SYNEMMENON Tetracordon, Nete, Paranete and Trite Synemmenon. See NETE, PARANETE, TRITE and SYSTEM.

SYNEMMENON, applyed, adjusted, is the name of one of the ancient Greek tetracords, added among the other four of their

their fystem, to the end that a sound might fall between Mese and Paramese, or our A and B, which were distant a tone major; and by this means came to be called B moll, or the order of B flat, as the other before such division was called beccare or natural. See Genus and Tetracord.

The B moll hexacord in Guido's gamut, answers to the Synemmenon tetracord of the Grecian system. See GAMUT

and HEXACORD.

SYNKOPTO. See SYNCOPE.

SYNTONO, this name the Grecians gave to a species of the diatonic genus, which was nearly our natural diatonic; but now it's fourths and fifths have been tempered for instruments of fixed sounds, these are not of consequence mathematically just; this is the case in which our Harpsicords and Organs stand at present; but see more fully under the article TEMPARAMENT.

SYNTONO, fays Zarlin, is the same with the Hyperlydian

mode. See HYPERLYDIO and MODE.

SYSTEM, a compound interval, or an interval composed or conceived to be composed of several less, such as the octave. See OCTAVE and INTERVAL.

The word is borrowed from the ancients, who call a simple interval Diastem, and a compound one System. See DIAs-

TEM.

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of

of eir As there is not any interval in the nature of things, so we can only conceive any given interval as composed of, or equal to the sum of several others.

This division of intervals therefore only relates to practice; so that a System is properly an interval, which is actually divided in practice, and in which along with it's extreams, we

conceive always some intermediate terms.

The nature of a System will be very plain, by conceiving it an interval, whose terms are in practice taken either in immediate succession, or the sound is made to rise or fall from one to the other, by touching some intermediate degrees; so that the whole is a System or composition of all the intervals between one extream and the other.

Systems of the same magnitude, and consequently the same degrees of concord and discord, may yet differ in respect of their composition, as containing, and being actually divided into more or sewer intervals; and when they are equal in that respect, the parts may differ in magnitude: Lastly, when they consist of the same parts or lesser intervals, they may differ as to the order and disposition thereof between the two extreams.

There

There are several distinctions of Systems; the most remarkable are into concinnous, and inconcinnous.

Concinnous Systems are those, which consist of such parts as are fit for music; and those parts placed in such an order between the extreams, as that the succession of the sounds from one extream to the other, may have a good effect. See Consonance.

The concinnous Systems, according to Euclid, are Diatesfaron, Diapente, Diapason; Diapason & Diatessaron, Diapason & Diapente, and Bisdiapason.

Inconcinnous Systems are those, wherein the simple intervals are inconcinnous, or badly disposed between the two extreams.

The inconcinnous, that author observes, are all less than the fourth, and all those situated between those abovementioned.

A System is either particular or universal.

An universal System is that which contains all the particular Systems belonging to music; and makes what the ancients called Diagram, and we the Scale of Music. See SCALE.

The ancients who agree, that a System is composed of two intervals at least, distinguished theirs into perfect and imperfect. The Bisdiapason or double octave was reckoned a perfect System, because within its extreams are contained examamples of all the simple and original concords, and all the variety of orders, wherein their concinnous parts ought to be taken; which variety constitutes what they call species or figures of consonances.

All Systems less than the Bisdiapason, were reckoned imper-

fect.

The double octave was called Systema maximum & immutatum, because they took it to be the greatest extent or difference they could go in making melody; but this must not be understood literally, that it was their greatest compass, but a little more at large; that within the compass thereof were contained, as has been faid, examples of all the simple concords, and their necessary varieties; for some among them indeed added a fifth thereto for the greatest System; but the octave or Diapason was reckoned the most perfect System, with respect to the agreement of its extreams; so that how many octaves foever were put into the greatest System, they were all to be constituted and subdivided the same way as the first; so that when we know how the octave is divided, we know the nature of the diagram or scale; the varieties whereof constitute the Genera Melodia, which are subdivided into species. See GENUS and SPECIES.

According.

According to Bacchius senior, the Systema immutabile contained two perfect Systems, the one was conjoint, as Diapason and Diatessaron, the other disjoint, as Diapason and Diapason.

In the first state of the Lyre the tetrachord was the greatest System, which was called by Boëtius the System of Mercury, because supposed to have been invented by him, about the

2000 year of the world.

This System ran through many hands, and rose to a seventh, in which there were two conjoint sourths, b, c, d, e, f, g, a. See TETRACHORD and Conjoint.

But it was foon found that a feventh had not extent enough to express the founds a of human voice; whereupon an eighth chord was added by Pythagoras, and the System by degrees was encreased by others to a double octave, or

fifteenth. See OCTAVE.

Between the two lowest chords of each fourth there was an interval of five commas, or a semi-tone major; and between the two highest but four, or a semi-tone minor; and between the two middle ones there was a tone major; at least, says Mr Brossard, this is the opinion of the ancients. See Comma and Semi-Tone.

In this state the System was called diatonic, i. e. proceeding by, or composed of, tones and semi-tones, and

therefore very easy to sing.

But as there was a tone major between Mese and Paramese, which made the fourth from F to B redundant and disagreeable, another fourth was inserted, called Trite Synemmenon, to make a sound fall between them, and divide that tone into two semi-tones, one major, the other minor; this is our B flat. See TRITE and LYRE.

It was this put Timotheus of Milesus upon dividing the intervals c d and f g, which were the middle chords of the tetrachord, and at the distance of a tone major, into two semi-tones; and that by means of a double diesis #: these were called suoni mobili, (see Suono) and hence sprung the chromatic genus. See Genus and Chromatic.

But he did not divide the intervals d e and g a, and which were the highest chords of each fourth in the heptachord, because they were but tones minor; those therefore were called fuoni stabili, or fixed founds. See Suono and Genus.

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At length Olympus, considering the division of the tones major, thought that the tones minor might also be divided; he therefore placed a chord between the two lowest sounds of each tetrachord, i. e. between b and c, e and f, and another between the second diatonic of each fourth and the chromatic, which was a semi-tone higher than the diatonic; and hence arose the enharmonic genus with it's diesis. See Enharmonic and Genus.

These three genera being reduced into one System, make what the ancients called Genus Spissum. (See Spissus.) And the sounds of the fourth so divided, stood thus; the white notes are the diatonic, the two first black ones enharmonic, and the breve chromatic.



In this the fourth was composed first of four diatonic chords, b, c, d, e; secondly, of one chromatic, a semi-tone higher than c; and lastly, of two enharmonic, the second whereof divided the semi-tone between c natural and c sharp, into two quarter tones.

As to the intervals between c sharp and d, and that between d and e, they were not divided in the ancient System, in regard they were thought very small intervals, and incapable of

fuch division.

This then, according to the most general opinion, was the state of the ancient System, though some there are who look upon this account as fabulous, and take the word tetrachord in a different sense, and divide it in a quite different manner; for which see Tetrachord.

The Græcians finding the names of the founds inconvenient by reason of their length, substituted the letters of their alphabet in their stead, sometimes set one way, sometimes another; as, upright, side wise, up-side-down, a-cross, &c. the manner whereof may be seen in Alypius, of whom the learned Meibomius has given us a copy and translation with notes thereon; as also in the works of Boëtius, P. Mersennus, and Kercher. But it must be observed, that they placed them all on one line, immediately over the words of the song.

The Latins eased themselves of this burthen, (for a burthen it must be, to remember 1240 characters, which is generally accounted the number of those the Gracians used) and substituted the letters of their own alphabet, A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, K, L, M, N, O, P; and thus formed a second System, differing

differing from the first in nothing but the different characters.

A little time after Pope Gregory observing that the sounds H, I, K, L, M, N, O, P, were only a repetition of those marked ABCDEFG, an octave higher, reduced all to the seven first letters; and these were repeated higher or lower as the song required, but still all on the same line. At length, in the XIth Century, says Baronius, Guido, sirnamed Aretine, because born at Auretiun in Tuscany, a Benedictine Monk of the monastery of our Lady de Pomposa in the dutchy of Ferrara, invented a third System; which soon threw the other two out of use, and was partly the same with the modern System.

The ingenious Guido confidering the long Greek names tiresome, placed instead thereof the syllables ut, re, mi, fa, sol, la, which he took from the first strophe of a hymn of St John the Baptist, ut queant laxis, &c. See Music and Hand.

Which fyllables Angelo Berrardi comprised very prettily in this line.

UT RElevet MIserum FAtum SOLitosque LAbores.

For Guido's improvement with regard to the lines and notes, see LINE and NOTE.

The better to diffinguish what sounds those syllables represented, he made use of the six first letters of the Latin alphabet, and placed at their head the Greek Gamma; from hence the whole System came to be called Gamm ut, or vulgarly Gammut. See GAMMA.

"Tis natural enough to think that he placed those letters at the end of the lines and spaces, and called them cleffs or keys; because by them we read and understand what sounds are meant by the dots on and between the lines.

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'Tis easy in this table to perceive that the first, third, and fourteenth notes are called fa's, because put on a line, at the end whereof the letter F is placed; and that the second, thirteenth, and sifteeenth, are called E's, because situated on a space which has the letter E at the beginning; and so of the rest.

L1 2

Again,

Again, Guido finding that the Græcians had good reason for dividing into two semi-tones the interval of a tone between Mese and Paramese, or our A and B, or the French la and si, placed a character called a flat on the line marked B, to shew that when sound there, the voice or sound was to rise only a semi-tone from A to B moll or flat; which when that character was omitted, was to rise a whole tone; and as this progression has something in it sweeter and more tender than the whole tone, it is called molle or soft: 'twas for this reason that he placed a column called the moll or flat hexachord in his Gamut. See GAMUT.

After having added one chord below the *Proflambanomenos*, or A of the ancients, called *Hypoproflambanomenos*, he added four others above the *Nete Hyperbolæon*, or highest of their *System*, which made a fifth tetrachord; so that his *System* instead of fifteen or eighteen, contained twenty two sounds; twenty

diatonic, or according to the order of B natural, and two

a femi-tone lower than natural; which changed the order of the notes according to the disposition of beccare, and produced another called diatonic moll, or only B moll b; i. e. flat.

Meibomius, and after him Bontempi, will not allow Guido the glory of these inventions; but be that as it will, this System is exceedingly ingenious, having eased us of some disficulties, which, says Mr Brossard, the ancient systems were troubled with, and is what has been so universally received, and so generally used for above six centuries. Notwithstanding all this, there are indeed some sew inconveniences attending it, to the number of three or sour.

The first, says Mr Brossard, was being obliged to use different names to the same notes, if the song ran higher than la or lower than ut; as at one time we called a note re, which but a minute before or after it must be called la; 'tis easy to judge what trouble this gave. An author in the last age called it with regard to chrildren, Grux tenellorum ingeniorum.

The fecond, was that there were no chromatic chords therein but B flat.

It is much to be wondered at, continues that author, that Guido, who was so well versed in the Gracian System, did not at least introduce more than one, since they are so often even necessary in harmony or compositions of many parts; (the invention whereof is most generally attributed to him) nay, it is almost impossible to make good harmony without their assistance,

The

The third inconvenience, adds he, was the fmall extent of his System, for fince they have composed songs in parts, certain it is that neither the double octave of the ancients, or the additions which Guido made thereto, have compass enough; although in that extent are contained varieties enough for good harmony.

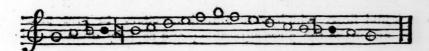
The last was, that all his notes were almost of equal value as to time, therefore he could not distinguish that variety of measures and time, (as at present) which are the greatest beau-

ties of a fong.

To remedy these inconveniencies it was necessary to frm a fourth System, in which more chromatic chords were added, and which is no more than an augmentation or perfection of Guido's; this System is what through the course of this work

is called the modern System.

First, As the founds of this System were found to proceed by feven and feven degrees, exactly at the fame intervals, and might be repeated from octave to octave to infinity; a feventh syllable was added to Guido's fix, in the middle of the last age, called si; by means whereof, say the French Musicians, we can eafily express every found in the octave, and make repetition thereof to what compass we please, without changing the names of any of the notes, or at least very feldom; we fay very feldom, because some will have it, that when there is a flat after the cleff, or in the course of the piece upon the line of B, it intimates, that from A to B the voice is to rise but a semi-tone, it should, for distinction's fake, rather be called fa or za, than s: but many there are on the other hand, who content themselves with raising or falling the voice or found a femi-tone, and change not the name; and indeed if this rife or fall be just, it matters not much what name the note goes by; fo that Guido's octave, with one chromatic chord therein, stood thus, ascending and descending.



Secondly, It being found, that there was a chord placed between the Mese and Paramese of the ancients, or our A and B, which divided the interval of a tone that was between them, into two semi-tones; 'twas thought that chords also might be added as well between those that were at the like distance from one another, i. e. had a tone between them; upon which they have not only inserted the B mol, as in Guido's

Guido's System, but also the chromatic chords of the ancient scale, that is, those which divide the tones major of each tetrachord into two semi-tones; this was affected by raising the lowest chord a semi-tone, by means of a double diesis, which was placed immediately before the note so to be raised, or on the same degree with it after the cless: again, it having been found, that the tones minor terminating the the tetrachords upwards, were no less capable of such division, they added the chromatic chords so dividing the tones minor, to the system; so that the octave then became composed of thirteen sounds and twelve intervals, eight whereof are diatonic or natural, thus distinguished by white notes O, and sive chromatic thus by black ones ; and the diesis prefixed.



As to the enharmonic founds of the ancient System, most modern authors say they were so extreamly nice and difficult in practice, that they were entirely laid aside. See Enharmonic.

Thirdly, To remedy the defects on account of the small compass thereof, and that they might have chords enough to vary and multiply the parts which compose the harmony, they augmented the old number to twenty-nine diatonic or natural, and twenty chromatic; so that instead of four tetrachords and two octaves, which was the extent of the ancient scales, they have now eight, and four octaves composed like that above described, of eight diatonic and five chromatic sounds; i. e. thirteen sounds and twelve intervals. This is the usual compass of Organs, Harpsichords, &c. But of late years even this number has been much encreased.

Fourthly, As the equality of Guido's notes rendered a fong too uniform, and deprived them of the variety of movements quick and flow, which were almost necessary to give pleafure, and make the piece agreeable; and as they often caused a disagreeable pronunciation of the words of a song. The samous John de Muris, Dostor at Paris, invented notes of different lengths about the year 1333. See Note and Figure 1333.

We shall here endeavour to give the reader a general table of the four Systems above-mentioned, at least in the manner they have descended to us, which may serve as an explanation of what has been said thereon. See the plate annexed.

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1	The Letters of the Mod	tern System		0			9			12 262

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With regard to this general System, it must be observed, that the fifteen diatonic chords, and the Trite Synemmenon of the ancients appear at first view; of which, those that have spaces between them, are distant from one another a tone; where the names thereof are close to one another, they have but a semi-tone between them.

The Hypoproflambanomenos, or Gamma, below the Proflambanomenos of the Græcians; and the tetrachord higher than their Nete Hyperbolæon, all added by Guido Aretine, as plain-

ly appear.

In the third place, the usefulness of the lines and spaces in distinguishing the high sounds from the low ones, is sensibly

apparent.

Fourthly, The figure and fituation of the three most usual cleffs of the modern practice, are not less sensibly discovered: For 'tis plain, that all the notes on the lines, at the end whereof is placed the letter G, are called fols; as those on the line marked C at the beginning, are called uts; and those on the lines marked F, are fas; by which means 'tis easy to distinguish, by reckoning as well ascending as descending, what the other notes are called that are placed on the other lines or among the spaces. Again, it also clearly appears, that as the G cleff takes part of the third octave, and all the fourth 'tis deflined for the higher founds, and therefore is put when a piece is defigned to be fung or played by a treble voice or inftrument; and as the letter F takes in a part of the second octave and all the first, it is therefore used when the piece is to be fung by a bass voice or instrument: and lastly, as C is the middle, and takes in part of the second and third octaves, it is most properly the mark of a middle or tenor pitch of tune. See TREBLE, TENOR, and BASS.

Fifthly, Above each of the notes are placed' the modern names, which shew, as the French have it, the usefulness of the seventh syllable fi; by means whereof we can repeat and multiply the sounds to what length we please, either upwards or downwards, without changing the name of any particular

note.

Sixthly, In this table are disposed not only all the diatonic or natural chords in the extent of the organ, but also the chromatic, or those that are either made moll by a slat >, or sharp by this character #; and for the better distinguishing the one and the other, the former are in white notes, the latter in black; and the whole being parted into four octaves, it appears at once, first in what octave any sound is situated, and next, precisely on what degree in that octave.

Seventhly,

Seventhly, Under all these are placed, 1st. the letters of the Latin System in the time of Boëtius; 2d. St Gregory's; 3d. the letters of Guido; and lastly, those used by the moderns; and which are often used for the Tablature of the Organ, especially among the Germans, Sweeds, and Saxons. See TABLATURE.

Eighthly, After having given you the intervals between each found and the next in the diatonic progression, we then fix the larger intervals, as fourths, fifths, &c. by means of semi-circles drawn from one sound to that in which it stands

in any of those proportions when compared.

And lastly, The greatest convenience of this table is, that in case any one would know what name any note in our scale had in that of the ancients, or è contra, he may be satisfied in a moment: for suppose I would know what they meant by Proslambanomenos, I carry my eye down the dotted line perpendicularly, and find A at the end of it, so that what the ancients called by that long name, we call A; and if again I would know what name the French si had in their scale, I look up the dotted line, and find it was called Paramese. The former of these is the la of our lowest octave, the latter is the mi of our third, and their Mese is the la of our second; as is the Nete Hyperbolæon the la of our third octave.

Again, as yet we find many ancient manuscripts wherein the sounds are expressed by the letters of the Latins, of St Gregory, or of Guido, there is nothing to be done but to cast the eye over the table, to find at once both the name and

situation it bears in the modern System.

It may here be observed, that if in examining the Diapasan of Organ-Builders, Harpsichord-Makers, &c. (which is the scale whereby they regulate the lengths, thickness, tension, &c. of the matters they use) we meet with a large or majuscale C at the end of a line; and looking in the table for such C, we find that the line thus marked, is the measure of the pipe or chord destined to sound the ut of the lowest octave; if a small c, 'tis the ut of the second; if two c' that of the

third; if there be three c, 'tis for that of the ut of the fourth

octave.

Besides these Systems there are many others mentioned by different authors, as System maximum, immutatum, diatonicum, pythagoricum, which perhaps may be only different appellations of what the Greeks called by the general name of Bis diapason, and in sact, the ancient System above explained.

SYSTEMA

SYSTEMA Ugale, invented by Aristoxenus. See TEMPERAMENT.

SYSTEMA Riformato, or Systema participato, or temperato, the same with that of Aristoxenus. See TEMPERAMENT.

Mr Sauveur invented another System, in which the octave was first divided into 43 parts, which he called Merides; and those again into 301, by him called Eptamerides. This System, says Mr Brossard, is very ingenious, but is very difficult in practice, and 'tis to be feared 'twill always have some difficulties. The curious may see it in the memoirs of the academy of sciences of 1701.

SYSIGIA, is a Greek term, that fignifies the combining many founds together; which when struck at the same time, though different in the degree of tune, are so proportioned among one another, as that their consonance, i. e. joint founding, affects the ear with pleasure.

This is what, fays Mr Broffard, late writers feem apt to think the ancients knew very little of; nay, fome prefume that 'twas entirely unknown to them, and is what the moderns call accord. See Accord or Concord.

There are many kinds, as perfect or imperfect; the perfect is that wherein none but good concords are used, such as thirds, fifths, and eighths. The imperfect, is when the fixth is heard; there is also a salse Sysigia, which is when some discords strikes the ear, as seventh, second, ninth, and all intervals that are either redundant or defective.

Sysigia again is either fimple or compound.

The fimple Sysigia, is when two concords at least are heard together, and consequently no less than three sounds, as third and fifth; and this is done either immediately, which is called the harmonical triad, or in a more distant manner, when the upper sounds are one or more octaves higher; examples of the first are marked A those of the latter B.



This distant position has not a bad effect for the third, but for the fifth it is not so well; and generally speaking, the more immediate or the nearer one another these accords are, the better, especially in accompaniments.

The compound accords, are when one or more of the founds of the harmonical triad are doubled, or raifed one or more octaves higher than their natural fituation; and this again may be done in different manners.

M m

Ift. When

1st. When only one of the founds of the triad is doubled, the piece is defigned for four parts; if the bass found be doubled, i. e. if the octave is added to the third and fifth, 'tis a perfect accord, as containing all the good concords in the extent of the octave; if the found that makes the fifth is doubled instead of the octave, 'tis imperfect, but yet tolerable; but the third should seldom or never be doubled.

2d. If two founds of the harmonical triad are doubled, the piece is made in five parts, in which case, the found that makes the fifth is doubled, rather than that which makes the octave, after having doubled the bass with the octave; which

indeed ought not to be doubled but in case of need.

3d. If all the founds are doubled, 'tis for a composition of fix parts, and therein the found that makes the third may as

regularly be doubled as the fifth.

Lastly, If the piece be for seven or eight parts, then after having doubled all the sounds of the harmonical triad, one or two octaves higher are doubled, or any of the sounds that shall be most proper.

T.

Stands for Tutti, all, or altogether. See TUTTI. It is also used to mark the tenor, and has the words primo, fecondo, or the figures 1°, 2°, to fignify the first or second tenor.

The letter T, or tr is often used likewise to signify a shake to be made on any found, and is placed over the note so to be

shook on, or or or and here 'tis an abbreviation of the word Trillo.

TABLATURA, the old way of fetting down musical compositions with letters instead of notes; nay, some even call the present way of writing music in notes Tablature, though with no great propriety. See TABLATURE.

TABLATURÉ, in general fignifies when to express the founds or notes of a composition, we use the letters of the alphabet, or any other character, though not usual in the modern music. See Score.

But in a stricter sense, Tablature is the manner of writing a piece of music for the Theorbo, Lute, Guittar, Viol, or the like, which is done by writing on parallel lines (each of which represents a string of the instrument) certain letters of the alphabet, whereof A marks that the string is to be struck open, i. e. without putting the singer of the less hand on the neck. B shews that one of the singers is to be put on the first stop, C on the second, D on the third, and so on through the octave.

The Tablature of the Lute is wrote in letters of the alphabet, and that of the Harpsichord in common notes with figures over their heads, though the Germans, Saxons, Swedes, &c. who seldom or never use our notes, and who have rendered themselves samous for their accurate practice and knowledge of this sort of writing, use it not only for the Lute, Bass-viol, &c. but also for the Organ and Harpsichord, placing plain letters without lines. See Lute and Harpsichord.

TABOR, Tabour or Taborin, a small kind of drum. See TYMPANUM and DRUM.

TACET, fignifies let it be filent, from Tacere. This word is often met with in Italian pieces instead of a rest or pause, especially when some part of a song is too long to be marked with pauses, though a silence of that part be required;

it usually signifies that a whole part is to lie still. Thus Christe Tacet, deposit Tacet, intimates that while one or more parts are performing the Christe, or the verse depositit, &c. the part in which 'tis put should be silent.

TACET, is a term purely Latin, though the French have engroffed it to fignify a rest or filence in general, and indeed it fignifies the same as the Italian Tacet. See TACET.

TACT, is a German word which fignifies measure. See

MEASURE, BATTUTA and METRON.

TACTUS or Mensura. See MEASURE.

TAGLIATO cut, cleff, this term the Italians make use of to name the signs of the measure, which the French call Barré; 'tis when the character of the time is thus marked this is the mark of common time pretty quick, which contains a breve, or it's quantity in less notes, in each bar, therefore called alla breve. See Common and TIME.

TARDO, fignifies flow, and is much the same movement

as largo. See LARGO.

TASTATURA, the whole range of keys of Organs, Harpsichords, &c. See Organ, Harpsichord and Key.

And hence those pieces which a musician plays by way of prelude or introduction came to be called *Tastature*, being for no other purpose than to try if the instrument be in tune. See

FANTASIA, PRELUDE and RICERCATA.

TASTO, the touch or part of any instrument whereon, or by means of which it's notes are made to found, be it on the neck, as Lutes, Violins, &c. which are called fixed and immoveable; or the front of Organs, Spinets or Harpsichords, where the keys are disposed to raise the jacks, called moveable touches; and is properly no more than the finger-board of of each.

The Italians often put the words Tasto solo in their thorough basses, to signify that the instruments that can accompany their accords, as the Lute, Organ, &c. are only to strike a single sound, from that place, till they find cyphers or the words accordo or accompanimento placed in their part, which intimate that there the accords are to be begun.

TATTO, the fame with Tastus. See BATTUTA or.

MEASURE.

TATTOO, i. e. Tapto, a beat of Drum at night to advertise the soldiers to retreat or repair to their quarters in a garrison, or to their tents in a camp. See DRUM.

TO TEMPER. See TEMPERAMENT.

TEMPERAMENT

TEMPERAMENT, or Tempering, in music, the accommodating or mending the imperfect concords by transferring to them part of the beauty of the perfect, in order to remedy the defects of all musical instruments whose sounds are fixed.

The degrees of the octave, which by Euclid are called it's elements, as being the smallest intervals that, among us, it is resolved into, are two greater semi-tones, and three greater tones and two less. See Music, Octave, and Tone.

Now the different fituations of these elements, with respect to each other, occasions that intervals or concords of the same names, as thirds or fourths do not consist of the same degrees or elements, though there be always the same number of them; but some fourths or fifths for instance are perfect and others not.

To mend these impersect concords musicians have bethought themselves to temper, that is, to give them part of the agreeableness of the persect ones; in order to this they take a medium between the two, and this they call a *Temperament*, which necessarily produces a new division of the octave, or, which is the same thing, new elements.

For instance, whereas naturally it's elements are the greater femi-tone and the greater and less tones; they take a middle tone formed of the greater and less; and the only elements now are the greater semi-tone and this mean tone; which renders the five intervals that are tones equal, and those that are semi-tones less unequal to these.

One might divide also each of these five tones of the octave into semi-tones, which joined to the two it naturally has make twelve, in which case the whole octave would be divided into twelve equal parts, which would be mean semi-tones.

TEMPERAMENTO, says Mr Brossard, is what the Italians otherwise call Participatione, we generally call it bearing: they therefore call the modern system, Systema Temperato, or Participato, because 'tis founded on temperature; that is, on the diminution of some intervals, and the enlarging of others; which makes it participate of the diatonic and chromatic systems.

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The better to understand what is meant hereby, 'tis to be observed, 1st. that among the ancients, there were three sects, who had very different opinions concerning the precise compass or extent of each interval.

The first of these were the Pythagoreans disciples of Pythagoras, who would have it that reason alone was the proper judge of sounds and their proportions, and consequently, that the forms of intervals were all rational, i. e. they admitted none but such as they could demonstrate either arithmetical

Cally by numbers, or geometrically by lines; and that therefore the fifth must always have the perpertien of 2:3 the fourth that of 3:4, the tone minor 9:10, the tone-major that of 8:9 exactly; and besides these, they fixed the proportion of many other intervals, which have afforded disputes

for as many mathematicians.

But the ear (the judgment whereof is very nice) does not agree to what they so fixed. Aristoxenus, Aristotle's follower, a little time after that, thinking that as sound was the chief object of the ear, the ear therefore was the properest judge, and gave himself no trouble about what the Pythagoreans said of reason; observing that if the fifth was too great or strong, or the sourth too small or weak, they did not greet the ear with pleasure; he therefore thought it necessary to diminish the one, to help out the other. And again, thinking that as the ear could find no sensible difference between tones major and minor, it was needless to divide them in that manner, and thereupon fixed them on an equality. This was the rise of what the Italians call the Systema Ugale, which is the state in which our Organs and Harpsichords stand at present, and opinion of the second sect which even now has many adherents.

At length Ptolemy and Dydimus, seeing that the Pythagoreans and Aristoxenians gave into extremities in their opinions, equally absurd, taught, that sense and reason were to be considered not as subject to each other, but as inseparable companions that must agree to judge of sounds. This consideration set them to work (though something differently) to fix the ancient diatonic system in such a manner, as that reason and the ear might be satisfied, or, at least contented at the same time; they by each others assistance made a new system, by the Italians called Systema reformato, the curious may see the proportions thereof in Zarlin, Kercher, &c. but more clearly in the 93d page of Bontempi's Historia Musica. In which also may be seen the proportions of the Pythagorean and Aristoxenian systems.

It must be observed, First, that in all these systems the fourth was composed diatonically of three intervals, one semitone, one tone major, and one minor. See Fourth.

Second, That Ptolemy and Dydimus, among all their reformations, thinking that the tone minor could not be divided into two femi-tones, put but one chromatic found in the fourth, which divided the tone-major into two femi-tones, one major the other minor, therefore there was a fort of void in each tetrachord.

It being fince found necessary to divide the minor tone into two femi-tones, to which end 'twas thought fit to enlarge the fourth, and diminish the fifth, but no one had hitherto introduced fuch an alteration into the fystem, either from regard they had for antiquity, or for fome other cause. And this perhaps was the reason that the Romans, who were bred up to rapine and wars, and 'till they conquered Greece, were an unpolished illiterate people, neglected this beautiful science; but this neglect may indeed rather be imputed to ignorance than any thing elfe, for they had no fooner subdued Greece by arms, being exceeded by it in learning, but they began out of envy to fludy arts and sciences, most of which they brought to great perfection; but of this they have left us only a few treatifes, and those feem rather abridgments or translations of what the ancient Greeks wrote, than any new productions of their own.

At length a very learned man (whose name, says Bontempi, is not mentioned in history) perceiving that the ear was not displeased if the fifth was a little diminished, that is, if it was not quite of so great an extent, sound out an admirable Temperament, which rendered the second tone of the sourth equal to the first, by giving the sourth a little greater extent than it naturally had from it's mathematical form of 3:4; which tone consequently admitted one chromatic chord which divided it into two semi-tones. This sourth system is called by the Italians Systema Temperato.

By the help of this addition, i. e. of one chromatic chord, the octave is divisible into twelve semi-tones, without any void in or between the two fourths whereof 'tis composed; and at the same time by means hereof two of the genera, viz. Chromatic and Diatonic are brought into one system, for which reason 'tis again called Systema Participato, or in Participatione.

It would afford matter enough for dispute to prove whether this Temperament have the beauties and conveniencies 'tis generally thought to posses; for first by this the ancient Diatonic genus instead of being improved is utterly spoiled, having it's intervals improperly diminished and enlarged, and it's mathematical forms robbed of their justness, which of confequence must have likewise taken from the Chromatic many of it's excellencies, by reason it's semi-tones have not their just ratios, for in this music may be compared to architecture; if such a pillar, column, &c. require a certain proportion to make it beautiful, and even agreeable to the eye, the more is added or diminished in that pillar takes off from it's symetry and renders it disagreeable, yet not so much so as to shock the sight; so in music when the fifth or the fourth have

their just proportions, they greet the ear with more pleasure, than when according to this temperament, the one is either diminished or the other enlarged; yet by this alteration they do not become so disproportioned as not to have a pleasing affect, tho' that be not so strong as it might otherwise have been.

Mr Broffard is of another opinion, for, fays he, it is strange that the Gracians, who in all other points of this art ran such great lengths, did not introduce so ingenious, and at the same time so natural an invention, into their system; and this, says he, agrees with what Horace says in these words.

Nec minimum meruêre decus Vestigia Græca, Aust deserere, &c.

As to the quantity which is to be added to, or deducted from the fifth, fourth, and other intervals, we shall not here pretend to determine: Le Sieur Loulie of Paris, having writ an express treatise on this subject, printed at Amsterdam, wherein the curious may find many learned demonstrations on what we have called Temperament, and how to find mechanically what is commonly called partition; and also his monochord, which he calls fonometer. See also Mr Saveur's System, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences of 1701.

TEMPERATO. See System and TEMPERA-

MENT.

TEMPI, as a quatro tempi. See TEMPO or TIME. TEMPO. See TIME, being no more than the Italian word for it.

TEMPO di gavotta, di minuetto, — in the time or manner of a gavotte or minuet. See GAVOTTA and MINUET, TEMPOREGIATO fometimes fignifies, that the Musicians who accompanies the voice, or the person who beats the measure, should prolong some particular part thereof, to give the actor or singer room to express the passion he is to represent, or for him to introduce some graces by way of ornament to the piece that is given him, or to persorm such as are marked in his book, &c.

TENDERMENT, tenderly, gently; as much as to fay, fing or play after a foft, sweet, gentle, moving and affect-

ing manner. See AFFETUOSO.

TENORE, the first mean or middle part; or that which is the ordinary pitch of the voice, when neither raised to a treble, or lowered to a bass. See PART and MUSIC.

The Tenor is commonly marked in thorough bass with the letter T.

This is a part which almost all grown persons can sing; but as some have a greater compass than others, either upwards or downwards; others are confined to a kind of medium, and others can go equally high or low. Hence Musicians make a variety of Tenors, as a low, a high, a mean, a natural Tenor: to which may be added, a Violin Tenor, &c. for instruments.

The Italians usually distinguish two kinds of Tenor; Tenore primo, 1°, or p°, which is our upper Tenor; and Tenore secondo, 2°, 11°; confounding all the rest under the word Baritono. See BARITONO.

TENORE Concertante, is the Tenor of the little chorus, in which are all the recitos of the grand chorus; if these are divided among many voices or instruments, to distinguish, they say Tenore primo or secondo, &c. as,

TENORE primo, seconda, &c. concertante; the Italians make use of this phrase, when the parts are different in the grand chorus, which often happens in a composition of several parts.

TENORE ripieno, is the Tenor of the grand chorus.

TENORE primo, fecondo choro,—the Tenor of the first and fecond chorus; thus the Italians say of a Tenor, when they make a part of each chorus in compositions of three or more parts.

TENORE Viola, or Violina, — a Tenor Viol, or Violin.

TENOR we often use for the person who sings that part in a concert, and for an instrument proper to play it.

TENORISTA, the person who sings or plays the tenor part in a concert.

TERCET, a third. See THIRD.

TERNARIO TEMPO, triple time. See TIME and TRIPLE.

TERNARY MEASURE. See MEASURE.

TERTIA. See TRITE.

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TERTIA, Conjunctarum.
TERTIA, Divisarum.
TERTIA, Excellentium.
See System and TRITE.

TERZA, fignifies third, or the number three; it also denotes a fong, air, or tune, composed in three parts.

Sesqui TERZA. See SESQUI, EPITRITO, and PRO-PORTION.

TERZETTO, a little air or tune in three parts. See

TERZO, for three, or in three parts, as ill Terzo, or un Terzo a trio, or composition for three voices or instru-N n ments; ments; or sometimes a third part, as un Terzo di battuta, - a

third part of the bar. See TRIO.

TESTO, the text or fubject; this word is applied by the Italians to the words of a fong, on or to which some air or tune, either melody or harmony is to be composed. It is a matter of great concern to understand well how to appropriate or adapt the music to the words of a song, to express the sense; and make a just application of the long and short syllables to the notes and times with which they are to be connected.

But this branch of the science, which depends greatly on the knowledge of poetry, has lain a long time almost unregarded, and even at present very little care is taken in this point in the modern musick; which is somewhat wonderful, since 'twas to this that the ancients attributed the extraordinary effects of their music; for by them this branch was most accurately observed, and by this they regulated and governed their measure, so that they might produce the desired effects.

TESTUDO, was particularly used among the poets, &c. for the ancient Lyre; by reason 'twas originally made by it's inventor *Mercury*, of the back or hollow shell of a Testudo aquatica, or Sea Tortoise, which he accidentally found

on the bank of the River Nile. See LYRE.

Dr Molyneux has an express discourse in the Philisophical Transactions, to shew that the tortoise-shell was the basis of the ancient Lyre, and that the whole instrument from thence had the name Testudo; which account lets some light into an obscure passage in Horace, Od. 3. lib. 4.

O Testudinis Aureæ, Dulcem quæ Strepitum, Pieri, temperas. O mutis quoque piscibus, Donatura Cygni, si libeat, sonum.

TETARTOS, or TETARTUS. See PROTOS.

TETRACHORD, in the ancient music, a concord consisting of three degrees or intervals, and four terms or sounds; called by the ancients also (more properly) diatesfaron, and by us a fourth. See FOURTH.

In the ancient fystem, the fourth, as has been said, was diatonically composed of four terms and three intervals; the lowest whereof was a semi-tone, the highest a tone minor, and the middle one a tone major, or è contra; for the extreams being fixed, the middle sounds alone were changeable.

This order of the three intervals was found fo essential and necessary to form the Tetrachord, that they introduced another

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found, which divided it's tone major into two semi-tones, and which is our B flat. See TRITE SYNEMMENON and B mol.

The ancient system contained sour principal Tetrachords, which with the Trite Synemmenon made sive, which they called Hypaton, Meson, Synemmenon, Diezeugmenon, and Hyperbolæon; their names are rendered in Latin by Albinus thus: Hypatas, says he, are Principales, Mesas medias, Synemmenas conjunctas, Diezeugmenas disjunctas, Hyperbolæas excellentes. See Hypaton and System.

It may here be observed, that fince the division of the tone major by Trite Synemmenon into two semi-tones, and the octave into twelve intervals, in thirteen sounds; the word Tetrachord is no more used than with regard to the ancient scale.

This interval had the name of Tetrachord given it with refpect to the Lyre and it's chords. See Lyre, Chord, and DIATESSARON.

Ancient authors make frequent mention of *synaphe* or conjunction, and *diezeuxis* or disjunction, of the *Tetrachord*. To conceive their meaning it must be observed, that two fourths are said to be conjoined when the same chord is the highest of the lowest, and lowest of the highest fourth; as is the case of the two fourths that composed the ancient heptachord or seventh. See Lyre.

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But when the two fourths had no common chord, but on the contrary had each their different ones to begin and end with; so that between these two there was an interval of a tone major, the *Tetrachord* was said to be disjoined, which is the case in the two fourths, whereof the octachord or octave is composed. See Octave. Bacchius senior is very express upon this subject. See Synaphe and Diezeuxis.

The word is formed of the Greek Telpa, four times, and xoods chord or string. See CHORD. Again, see TRITE, SY-STEM, FOURTH, &c.

What has been said thus far of the word Tetrachord, is to be understood of it as being an interval in music; but the word in a litteral sense, signifying any thing that has sour strings, may be with great propriety applied to the Lyre in it's primitive state, i. e. when it had but sour chords; the disposition whereof, on the ratios they bore to one another, have given room for many disputes among the learned in the science; some there are who are satisfied with that given under the article Lyre, which others look upon as merely sabulous and historical; which latter, think the Tetrachord in this sense, had these proportions sollowing: that the first was to be the second, a sourth as 4:3; the second to the third, a tone

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major, as 9:8; the third to the fourth, a fourth; so that from the first to the last was an octave, and from the first to the third, a fifth, as 3:2; from thence to the last, a fourth, here is that octave harmonically divided; in the former case, where from the first to the second was a fourth, and from thence to the last a fifth; it was said to be arithmetically divided. See HARMONICAL DIVISION.

TETRACHORDON. See TETRACHORD.
TETRACHORDON Divisarum, Excellentium, Mediarum,
Principalium & Conjunctarum. See System, Trite SyNEMMENON, and GENUS.

TETRADIAPASON, i. e. fourfold Diapason, a musical chord, otherwise called a quadruple eighth, or a nine

and twentieth.

TETRATONON, the superfluous fifth may be thus called, as containing four tones. See QUINTA, DIA-PENTE, or FIFTH.

TEXTURA. See TESTO and Usus.

THEORBO, or THIORBA, a musical instrument made in form of a Lute, except that it has two necks or juga; the second or longest whereof sustains the four last rows of chords, which give the deepest and gravest sounds. See Lute.

The Theorbo is an inftrument which for this last seventy or eighty years has succeeded the Lute in playing thorough basses. It is said to have been invented in France by the Sieur Hotte-

man, and thence introduced into Italy.

The only difference between the *Theorbo* and Lute is, that the former has eight bass or thick strings, twice as long as those of the Lute, which excess of length, renders their found exceeding soft, and keeps it up so long at a time, that 'tis no wonder many prefer it to the Harpsichord itself; at least it has this advantage over it, that 'tis easily removed from place to place.

All it's strings are usually single, tho' there are some who double the bass strings with a little octave, and the small strings with an unison; in which case it bearing more refemblance to the Lute than the common Theorbo; the Italians

call it Archileuto or Archlute.

The word is formed of the French Theorbe, of the Italian Tiorba, which fignifies the fame thing; and is, as fome will have it, the name of it's inventor.

THEORY, Theoria, a simple speculation of the objects of any art or science, which is the considering or examining

the effence, nature, and properties thereof, without ariving

at it by a practice of the art itself.

THEORICO, a person who only applies himself to the theory of any art; Musico Theorico, say the Italians, is a Musician, who not only studies the science in private, but also writes new treatises on music, or comments upon those of the ancients to endeavour at an explanation of their dark passages; tho at the same time perhaps he may be an excellent practicioner. See PRATTICO.

THESIS, a Greek term, fignifying the fall of the hand in beating the measure; the Latins call it Depression. See

ARSIS and PER.

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Per THESIN. See PER and FUGA.

THIORBA. See THEORBO.

THIRD, an imperfect concord resulting from a mixture of two sounds, containing two degrees or intervals, and three terms or sounds. See Concord and Interval.

The Third the Italians call Terza, the French Tierce, and the Latins Tertia; it has no general name in Greek. It is the first of the impersect concords, i. e. of such as admit of majority and minority, without ceasing to be concord: and

hence 'tis distinguished into two kind.

The first which the *Italians* call ditono (from the Greek ditonon) or Terza maggiore, and we the greater Third, is composed diatonically of three terms or sounds, containing two degrees or intervals, one whereof in the ancient system was the greater tone, and the other less; but in the modern system or systema Temperato, they are both equal as c, d, e; i. e. on instruments of fixed sounds, for on others they are distinguished. See Tone and Semi-tone.

Chromatically it is composed of four semi-tones, two whereof greater and two less; it takes it's form from the ratio

Sesqui quarta, 4:5.

The second Third, which the Italians like, the Greeks call Trihemitono, or Semiditone, or Terza minore, and we the lesser Third, is composed like the former of three terms or sounds, and two degrees or intervals; but those degrees diatonically make but a tone and semi-tone major, and chromatically three semi-tones, two greater and one less, as d, e, f, or d, f; it takes it's form from the ratio session quinta, 5:6.

Both those Thirds are of admirable use in melody, and make as it were the life and foundation of harmony. See

MELODY and HARMONY.

It is here to be remarked, that the *Third* minor may be either harmonical or natural; as when the tone is it's lowest interval, and the semi-tone it's highest, as d, e, f, or a, b, c;

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or arithmetical and flat, when on the contrary, the femi-tone is below and the tone above, as e, f, g, or b, c, d.

They are used agreeably, both ascending or descending; and that either di grado, or sounding all their degrees, as c, d,

e, or difalto, skipping the middle ones, as c, e.

But it is to be observed, that the greater Third has something in it gay and sprightly in rising, and somewhat heavy and melancholly in falling; the lesser Third on the contrary has something soft and tender in rising, and something brisk in falling. For the use of the greater and less Thirds in the series of the scale, see Scale.

There are two kinds of *Thirds*, that are diffonant and vicious, the first only composed of two greater semi-tones, and consequently of a semi-tone less than the less *Third*; this

is called the defective Third, from g to b flat.

The fecond on the contrary, has a femi-tone more than the greater third, and is therefore called the redundant or

fuperfluous Third, from f to a #.

The defective Third is very frequent in Italian fongs, especially those composed for instruments; but 'tis not to be used without necessity and a deal of discretion. The redundant Third is absolutely forbidden.

In the ancient system, says Mr Brossard, all these species of Thirds had but one double, which was the tenth, but in the modern they have triplicate, quadriplicate, &c. See In-

TERVAL.

A Third minor is marked thus in thorough basses, 3 +, or 3, and sometimes only thus +; the Third major 3 +, or

3, or alfo #.

When a note in the bass or other part is signed #, it is to have a # Third, or where the Third is naturally flat if this have placed with it, it shews that the Third is to be diminished; and if when the Third is naturally major, this be placed there #, 'tis to be superfluous or redundant; both of these are very seldom done.

The Third, as well major as minor, have very fine effects in harmony, and may be called the foundation thereof; whence 'tis permitted, to make as many Thirds after one another, as

one pleases, either to the bass, or some higher part.

Our antients, fays Mr Broffard, i. e. those since Guido, among their other rigid precautions, tyed themselves to two rules with respect to the use of Thirds; the first was, that they were to be made in conjoint degrees; the second, that both major and minor were to be shook on; to the end, that there might be a variety, and that the one might strengthen and make the other apparent. But the moderns, says he, have

have cleared themselves of these niceties, and at present, make as many Thirds as they please in disjoint or conjoint degrees, and that without shaking, and use three, sour, or more sollowing Thirds major without any scruple, because so many Thirds cannot but have many natural and accidental notes, which difference alone, is sufficient to form infinite varieties in the agreements of the harmony.

'Tis one of the most indispensable rules of a trio or composition for three parts, that the Third either major or minor be heard in some part of every measure, whether to the bass, or between the two upper parts: but the sixth being a Third reversed, may sometimes supply it's place, if any following part of the song or any particular expression require it.

And hence 'tis, that the *Third* may prepare, accompany, or resolve, most of the discords; but more properly the second, false fourth, or tritone, false fifth, seventh, &c. See each in it's proper place.

And lastly, by this means we may pass from any concord to a Third, and from the Third to any concord, at pleasure.

But it may here be observed, 1st. that when the bass or lower part rises from a fourth, or falls from a fifth to an octave, the preceding Third is to be major rather than minor; 2d. when we would pass from the Third to the fifth by a contrary motion, the third minor is more proper to be used than the major; for by this means we avoid the false relation of the tritone; 3dly, that the dominant of every mode naturally requires a Third major, for if the Third minor be used, it intimates that the mode is to be changed quickly after it.

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It must here again be observed, 1st. that the Third in general has not so good an effect in the low parts, or those that lye near the bass, as in those remote from it, at the distance of an octave, i. e. that the simple Third is good, but much better when double or tripled, &c. 2dly, that the simple Third minor has something in it so sad and mournful, especially in low or grave sounds, that 'tis by some thought a dissonant interval, and accordingly used in lamenting doleful expressions. And as when it is doubled, tripled, &c. it has a little more life, 'tis used in tender and affecting strains; 3dly, the simple Third major is really strong and sonorous, and therefore has a much better effect in lively brisk airs than the third minor, especially if doubled, &c. and best of all when used in some of the high parts of the composition.

As to the defective Third, 'tis sometimes used instead of the Third minor, and in harmony is to be used with more discretion than in melody; but the redundant or superstuous Third, as has been said, ought seldom or never to be heard.

THO-

THOROUGH BASS, is that which goes quite through the Composition, that is, continues to play or fing both during the airs, recitatives, and to sustain the chorus. See Bass.

THRENODIA, a mournful funeral fong. See SONG.

TIERCE. See THIRD.

TIME is an affection of found, whereby we denominate it long or short, with regard to its continuity in the same de-

gree of tune. See TUNE and SOUND.

TIME and Tune are the greatest properties of sound, on whose differences or proportions music depends: Each has its several charms, where the time or duration of the notes is equal, the differences of tune are alone capable of entertaining us with endless pleasures.

And of the power of time alone, i. e. the pleasures arifing from the various measures of long, short, swift, and slow, we have an instance in the Drum, which has no dif-

ference of notes as to tune, See TYMPANUM.

TIME is consider'd either with respect to the absolute duration of the notes, that is, the duration considered in every note by itself, and measured by some external motion foreign to music, in respect to which the composition is said to be quick or slow; or it is consider'd with respect to the relation, quantity or proportion of the notes compared with one another. See Note.

The figns and characters by which the time of notes is represented, are shewn under the article Character, where their

names, proportions, &c. are also expressed.

A semi-breve, for instance is marked to be equal to two minims, and a minim to two crotchets, a crotchet to two quavers, so on, and still in a duplicate Ratio, i. e. in the Ratio of 2: 1. Now, where the notes respect each other, thus, i. e. where they are in this Ratio, the music is said to be in duple, that is, in double or common Time.

When the notes are triple each other, or in the Ratio of 3: 1, i. e. when the femi-breve is equal to three minims, the minim to three crotchets, and the crotchets to three quavers,

&c. the music is in triple Time.

Now to render this part as simple as possible, the proportions already stated among the notes, are fix'd and invariable; and to express the proportions of 3: 1, a point (.) is added on the right side of any note, which is deem'd equivalent to half of it, and by this means a pointed semi-breve becomes equal to three minims, a pointed minim to three crotchets, a pointed crotchet to three quavers, and so of the rest.

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From hence arise several ratios constituting new kinds of triples, as 2: 3, and 3: 4, &c. but these Mr Malcolm says are of no real service, and are not perceived without a painful attention. For the proportions of the Time of notes to afford us pleasure must be such as are not difficultly perceived, on which account the only ratios sit for music, besides that of equality, are the double and triple. How far Mr Malcolm may be right I shall leave to the discerning reader's better determination.

Common or double *Time* is of two species, the first is where every measure is equal to a semi-breve, or its value in any combination of notes of less quantity.

The fecond is where every bar or measure is equal to a

minim, or its value in less notes.

The movements of this kind of measure are various, but there are three common distinctions; the first slow signified by the mark C, called semi-circle, at the beginning; the second brisk signified by \$\frac{1}{4}\$; the third very quick, signified by \$\frac{1}{4}\$ this 2, or this \$\frac{2}{4}\$; but when it has the last, there are but two crotchets in a bar. See TAGLIATO.

But then what that flow, brisk, and quick is, is very uncertain, and only to be learned by practice; the nearest measure we know of it, is to make a quaver the length of a pulse of a good watch; then a crotchet will be equal to two pulses, a minim four, and the whole bar or measure eight; this may be reputed the measure of brisk *Time*, for slow 'tis as long again, and for the quick only half as long.

The whole measure then of common Time is equal to a

femi-breve or minim.

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But these are variously sub-divided into notes of less quantity. See MEASURE.

Now to keep Time equally, we make use of a motion of the hand or foot; knowing the Time of the crotchet, we shall suppose the measure actually divided into four crotchets, for the first species of common time; then half the measure will be two crotchets; therefore the hand or foot being up, if we put it down with the very beginning of the first note or crotchet, and then raise it with a third, and then down again to begin with the next measure; this is what we call beating of Time.

By practice we get a habit of making this motion very equal, and confequently of dividing the bar or measure into equal parts up and down; as also of taking all the notes in their just proportions, so as to begin and end them precisely

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with

with the beating: In the measure of two crotchets the first is beat down, the second up. Some call each half of the measure in common Time, a Time; and so they call this the mode

or measure of two Times, or the duple measure.

According to the antients the *Time* was a certain character placed after the cleff, to shew how many semi-breves the breve contains, and hence arose those different distinctions into *Tempo perfetto*, and *tempo imperfetto*, in the latter whereof the breve was equal to, or contained no more than two semi-breves, but in the former 'twas equal to three, and each of these had its particular character, the former for instance had these two

characters peculiar to itself : , and the

latter these three three

first shew the breve to be equal to three semi-breves, those of

the last, that it contains but two.

When the characters of the latter is a fimple C, (which is called a femi-circle) it makes what the Italians call Tempo ordinario, or Tempo ala Semi-brevi, because 'tis more than the other, and that under this character the measure contains a semi-breve; but when 'tis turned to the left, thus J, the notes are lessened by half their value, and the semi-breve instead of being a whole bar, is but half a one or two Times, the minim or its value in less notes one time of the measure.

This Sign is sometimes barred or cut cross by a perpendicular

line thus \$\overline{\pi}\$, and turned to left, thus \$\overline{\pi}\$ in both which shapes

it marks what the Italians call Tempo alla Breve; because anciently these characters diminished the notes by one half, and therefore a breve was required to the bar; but at present they intimize that the measure be beat or divided into two parts slow, and into four pretty quick, unless contradicted by the words Largo, Adagio, Lento, &c. but when to these signs are added the words, Da capella, or alla Breve, the measure is to be beat extreamly quick.

Some of the moderns divide time into two species only,

the first they term Tempo Maggiore, with this Sign 1; in which

the hotes are sung alla Breve, or diminished of half their value

walue, so that to every bar a breve was required instead of a femi-breve. The second Tempo minore, wherein the notes had their common values, or a semi-breve in the bar. These are ordinarily called common Time, but if a sigure of 3 sollowed either of these, it alters their denomination to Tempo ternario maggiore, or minore, according to the sign thus marked, for which see Triple.

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Again some mark the measures of two crotchets with a 2, or $\frac{2}{4}$; signifying the bar to be equal to two notes, whereof

The word Time does not only fignify the whole measure, but also the aliquot parts thereof, as two Times, 3 or 4 Times, because the Hand in beating the whole bar makes so many different motions. 'Tis in this sense we understand the Italian phrase, à quatri tempi staccati è vivace, which intimates that the measure be beat in sour parts, well distinguished and with life. See STACCATO and VIVACE.

It is here to be observed, that among these aliquot parts of the measure, there are some whereon 'tis more proper to perform either a concord, discord, cadence, &c. than on others, which therefore are called Tempo di Buoni, or Cattivi, according as it happens; if it be proper to perform a concord, cadence, or place a long syllable, 'tis called Tempo Buono, is a discord be introduced and passed in conjoint degrees, Cattivo, these we otherwise call the accented and unaccented parts. See Accent, Buono and Cattivo.

Tempo, or Tempo giusto, is often met with after Recitatives, and intimates that the Time be beat equal, which during that recitative was managed otherwise, to humour some expression, action, &c. See Recitativo.

For triple Time, fee TRIPOLA, or rather TRIPLE.

TIMOROSO, fignifies that the fong is to be play'd or fung in a manner as to express an awe or dread, either to shew respect, or to represent fear.

TIMPANO. See TYMPANUM.

TIORBO See THEORBO.

TIRATA, is a term used by the Italians to express in general any quantity of notes, of whatever kind, provided of equal value, moying either upwards or downwards in conjoint degrees; they say Tirata di Semiminime, when there are many crotchets following one another in the manner above mentioned; and again Tirata Legatura, or Syncopato, when there are many notes the of same value following one another, among which the last of one bar, and the first of the next are tied by a semi-circle, thus , or ,

But this term is particularly used for a succession of many notes of the same value, moving in conjoint degrees ascending or descending, before the first whereof is placed a pause equal to a quaver or semi-quaver, and ending with a note of greater value, of this there are four kinds.

First, Tirata mezza, composed at least of three or four semi-quavers, which rise or fall to some note that is a fourth

or fifth above or below the first, as



Second, Tirata defectiva, when this succession is defective, i. e. when its rifes or falls a fourth, fifth, or farther, but never reaches the octave.

Third, Tirata perfetta, thus called because properly a true succession, is when between the first and last note thereof we move through all the degrees of the octave, equally the same falling as rising.

Fourth, Tirata aucta, or excedens, is when this succession runs beyond the compass of the octave, as above described.

Some also called the Roulade by this name, but improperly. See ROULADE.

TOCCATA is much the same as Ricercata, or Phantasia, Tastatura, &c. yet this is distinguished from the other kinds of symphonies; first, as being usually played on instruments that have keys, as Organs, Spinets, &c. Secondly, that it is commonly composed to exercise both hands, because sometimes the bass holds out a sound, while the upper part makes diminutions, passages, or Tiratas, and afterwards that part does the same while the bass moves in its turn.

TOCCATINA, a fmall refearch when we have not time to perform it in all its parts. See Toccata.

TONDO, the same as Rotondo, which see.

TONE, a property of found, whereby it comes under relation of grave and acute, or the degrees of elevation any found has from the degree of fwiftness of the vibrations of the parts of fonorous bodies. See Sound.

For the cause, measure, degrees, differences, &c. of Tones,

fee TUNE.

The varieties of tones in human voices, arise partly from the dimensions of the windpipe, which like the Flute the longer and narrower it is, the more acute is the sound it gives; but principally from the head of the larynx, or knot dle

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knot of of the throat, called *Pomum Adami*, the *Tone* of the voice being more or less grave, as the *rima* or cleff therein is more or less open.

Tone, is more particularly used for a certain degree or interval of tune, whereby a sound may be either raised or lowered from one extream of a concord to the other, so as still to produce melody. See Interval and Concord.

Musicians, beside the concords or harmonical intervals, admit of three less kind of intervals, which are the measure and component parts of the greater, called degrees. See DE-GREE.

Of these degrees two are called *Tones*, and the third *Semitone*; their ratios in numbers are 8:9, called the greater *Tone*, 9:10, less *Tone*, and 15:16, a *Semi-tone*.

Tones arise out of the simple concords, and are equal to their differences.

Thus the greater Tone, 8: 9, is, say Aristides, Bacchius senior, &c. the difference between a sourth and a fifth; whence, says Gaudentius, some have defined it the difference of the two first concords, as to magnitude; the less Tone 9: 10, the difference of a stat third and sourth, or of a fifth and sharp sixth; and the Semi-tone 15: 16, is the difference of a third greater and sourth. See Third, Fourth, Major, Minor and Semi-tone.

Of these tones and semi-tones every concord is compounded, and of consequence is resolvable into a certain number there-of: Thus the flat or less third consists of one greater tone and one semi-tone; the greater or sharp one of one greater Tone, and one less.

The fourth of one greater Tone, one less Tone, and a semitone. See FOURTH.

The Fifth of two greater Tones, one less Tone, and a semitone. See FIFTH, &c.

According to Aristoxenus, the Tone is divided in a different manner in each of the three Genera; in the diatonic 'tis divided into two semi-tones, one major, the other minor; and this is the smallest interval in that kind, i. e. diatonic; in the chromatic, the least interval is a third part of a Tone; and in the enharmonic genus the enharmonic diesis, agreed to be a quarter of a Tone is the least interval that is sung; and he adds, that two Tones do not follow one another in the two latter, nor more than three in the former.

Tone again (says Euclid) is taken in these four senses; first, simply for a sound or noise; secondly, for an interval; thirdly, for the pitch of the voice, and lastly, for raising the voice. Tis taken for a sound, when we use it with regard to the

Lyre,

Ly re, and fay that it had seven sounds, Heptatonon; for an interval, when we say that between Mese and Paramese, or A and B, there is a Tone, which is major; for the pitch of the voice, when we say a piece is composed in such a Tone or mode, which intimates no more than a certain species of octave in a certain degree of acuteness; and for the raising of the voice, when any sound either grave or acute is sung: To this we may add from Aristides, that never more than two Tones, i. e. taking it for an interval, are contained in a fourth, Bini Toni in uno tetracordo ponuntur, plures nunquam.

For the use of Tones and semi-tones in the construction of

the scale of music, see SCALE and SYSTEM.

TONO Tone. See Tone and Tuono.

TONICO. See SYSTEM.

TONOS. See Tone and Tuono.

TOUCH, is faid of an Organ, which they fay has a good Touch, when the keys close and lie down well, being

neither too stiff or too loose. See ORGAN.

TRANSITION is, when a greater note is broken into less, to make smooth the roughness of a leap, by a gradual passage to the note next following; whence tis commonly called the breaking of a note, being sometimes very necessary in musical compositions. See Note and Passage.

TRANSITUS is a term, which Martianus Capella makes use of, to express what is otherwise called Mutation,

See MUTATION.

TRANSPONENDO una terza, una quarta, &c. più basso, più alto. Mr Brossard has made use of this Italian phrase in the seventh Motetto of his Prodromus Musicalis, to signify, that if the thorough bass be transposed a third or fourth, &c. lower, that Motetto may, though composed for a counter-tenor, be sung or played by a treble or tenor; and among them there are several others that may be used in the same manner. Tis one of the principal uses of Transposition to reduce the Basso continuo to a certain pitch of tune, that may not be inconvenient, as forcing the voice or sound either too high or too low. See Transposition.

TRANSPOSITION, the writing any fong, air or tune in any key or cleff different from that in which it was first

composed.

Of this there are two kinds; the first is with respect to

the cleff, and the fecond with regard to the key.

Transposition with respect to the cleff, consists in the changing the places or seats of the notes or letters, among the lines

and spaces; but so as that every note be set at the same letter. See CLEFF.

This is done, either by moving the same cleff to another line, or by using another cleff; but with signs that place the tones and semi-tones in the same order as before, by reason the piece is in the same key. See KEY.

The practice is easy in either case; in the first, you take the first note at the same distance above or below the cleffnote, in its new position as before; and all the rest of the notes in the same relations or distances from one another; so that the notes are all set on lines or spaces of the same name.

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In the second, or setting the music in a different key, 'tis to be observed, the places of the three cless-notes are invariable in the scale, and are to one another in these relations, the mean a fifth above the bass, and the treble a fifth above the mean.

Now to transpose to a new cleff, for example, from the treble to the mean, wherever the new cleff is set, we suppose it the individual note in the same place of the scale, as if the piece were that part in the composition, to which the new cleff is generally appropriated; so that it may direct to the same note we had before Transposition. Now from the fixed relations of the three cleffs in the scale, it will be easy to find the seat of the first transposed note, and then all the rest are to be set at the same mutual distances they were at before. See Scale.

Suppose, for example, the first note of a song to be D, a fixth above the bass-cleff, wherever that cleff is placed, the first note must be a greater second above, because a greater second above the mean, is a fixth above the bass-eleff, the relation between the two being a fifth; so the first note will be still the same individual D.

The use of this Transposition is, that if a song being set with a certain cleff in a certain position, the notes go sar above or below the staff of sive lines, they may by the change of the same cleff in the particular system, or by taking a new cleff, be brought within the compass of the lines, or at least more within either extream than before.

Transposition from one key to another, is a changing of the key, or setting all the notes of a song at different letters, and performing it consequently in different places upon the instruments. See Key.

The Design hereof is, that a song, which being begun in one place is too high, too low, or otherwise inconvenient for a certain instrument, may be begun in another place, and from that carried on through all its just degrees.

The

The cleff and its position here remain the same, and the change is of the notes themselves from one letter to another,

and its line or space to another

In the former Transposition, the notes were expressed by the same letters, but both removed to different lines and spaces; in this the letters are unmoved, and the notes of the song transferred to, or expressed by other letters, and consequently set on different lines or spaces, which therefore re-

quires a different fignature of the cleff.

Transposition then is the changing the notes of a song to a different species of octave, to that in which it was first composed, or at least in which 'tis actually noted, in such sort that the semi-tones of the two sourths, which compose each octave, as mi, fa, and as the French have si, ut, may be sound by means of b + b stats, or b + b sharps, exactly in the same range, or in the same degree or proportion to one another, as before Transposition,



Diatonic or natural octave. Transposed a tone higher,

where the femi-tones of the fourth in the diatonic are found

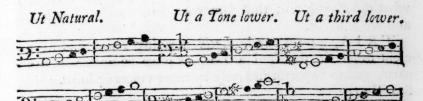
by means of sharps.

Or 'tis the using one or more chromatic chords instead of the natural or diatonic, to constitute a mode, that is to say, to place the final on any degree at pleasure, or to render the fifth above it just; and by that means make it the dominant, or to make the third major or minor, &c. See Mode.

It must be observed, 'tis not possible to transpose a diatonic song, or one wherein there are none but natural chords, either higher or lower, without the aid of these chromatic signs, either one so state, or one sharp \$\#\;\$; and very often one may not be sufficient; therefore 'tis here to be remarked, that if many slats or sharps be found in a song, either immediately after a cleff, or in different parts of the song, on the natural or effential chords of the mode, it may be concluded, that the song is in a transposed mode, and therefore may be reduced to a natural one.

Lastly, Transposition is to use these chromatic characters in such a manner, as that by their help the chords of the two octaves, tho' they begin and continue in different letters or degrees of the gamut, may form the same intervals, and consequently have the same names.

Ut



Re Natural.

Re a Tone higher, Re a Tone lower.

We here only give examples of Ut and Re, because the finals of all transposed modes must be one of those two; if Ut, the third above it is major; if Re, minor.

Many things might here again be said of the cause, nature, effects and use of Transposition; but we shall only add from Mr Brossard, that it is a thing that gives a great deal of trouble to young practitioners in singing. Sometimes by the negligence either of authors or copists in forgetting to place the chromatic signs; for a flat or a sharp being omitted after the cless, makes them mistake in transposing the air, which they supposed noted in a certain cless, which the accidental slats or sharps in the course of the song, shew not to be natural. This Transposition neither raises or lowers the tone, but changes the names only, and reduces a transposed song to a natural one. See Mr Alexander Frere's treatise thereon.

TRE, three, as a tre voci, violini, stromenti, - for three

voices, Violins or instruments.

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TREBLE, the highest or acutest part of the four parts in symphony, or that which is heard clearest in a concert. See Music and Part, as also Symphony.

In this sense we say, a treble Violin, treble Hautboy, &c.

See VIOLIN and HAUTBOY.

In vocal music the Treble is usually committed to boys and

girls, i. e. their parts are Trebles.

The Treble is divided into first or highest Treble, and second or low Treble; half Treble is the same with the counter-tenor.

TREMOLETTO. See TREMOLO.

TREMOLO, Tremolante or Tremente, 'tis not often used, except thus abbreviated Trem. or tr. to intimate to the instrumental performers of a piece, that they make several notes on the same degree or pitch of tune, with one draw of the bow, to imitate the shaking on the Organ. Tho' this is often placed in the vocal parts of a song. We have examples of both in Mr Lully's opera of Iss.

We also find Tremoletto, it's diminutive, placed to fignify what the French call, tho' somewhat improperly, a cadence, and we a shake.

TRIA, a term purely Latin meaning three, and in ancient music it fignifyed a Trio, or piece composed in three parts, and to be performed only by three voices or instruments. See Trio.

TRIAS Harmonica, the harmonical triad; a compound of three radical founds all heard together, of which one is a fifth, and the other a third above the other, which is the

fundamental. See CONCORD.

The Triad is properly a consonance formed of a third and a fifth, which with the bass or fundamental sound make three different terms; whence the name Triad. That of harmonical is doubtless given it from the wonderful property of the fifth, which divides itself into two thirds very naturally, both excellent and perfectly agreeable; so that this one found disposed between two others, make two thirds at once, one major the other minor, and of consequence a double harmony. See Fifth.

Hence it is, that in Trios particularly this concord is prefered to that which divides the octave into a fifth and a fourth, in regard that if there be concord on one fide, there is a discord on the other, whereas here the harmony is compleat on both fides. But here it must be observed, that the fourth is by some accounted a discord, but by most esteemed a concord; and 'twas upon the division hereof, that a great

many of the ancient niceties depended.

Of the three founds which compose the harmonical Triad, the gravest is called the fundamental or basis; the acutest, that is, that which makes the fifth, and terminates the concord upwards, is called the excluded or highest sound, sonus exclusus; and that which divides the fifth so agreeably into two thirds, the harmonical mean, Medius harmonicus.

This division of the fifth into two thirds may be performed two ways, viz. First, harmonically, when the greater third is lowest, and the less a-top; in which case the Triad is said to be perfect and natural. See Terza.

Secondly, Arithmetically, when the less third is lowest, and the greater a-top; in which case the *Triad* is called impersect or flat: both are good, but the last is not so much used as the first. See Sysygia.

TRIEMITUONO, or Tribemituono, is a femi-ditone or third minor. See THIRD and MINOR.

TRIGON, or Trigonon, a musical instrument, much used among the ancients, it is a kind of triangular Lyre, invented by Ibycus. See Lyre.

TRILL. See TRILLO.

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TRILLETTA, a little short shake or quaver; it differs from Trillo only in point of continuance, being its diminutive. See TRILLO.

TILLO, is often found marked with a fingle T. or fometimes tr. and often also by a small t. as well in vocal as instrumental parts. 'Tis to intimate, that you beat quick upon two notes in conjoint degrees, as e f, or d e, alternatively one after another, beginning with the highest, and ending with the lowest; and makes what the French improperly call cadence, and properly Tremb'e nent. But 'tis very often found in Italian music to give notice, that the same sound be struck many times over, beginning a little slow, and ending with all the quickness that the gula or singer can form them; as supposing the first two or three quavers, then as many semi-quavers, and ending with demi-semi-quavers, all in the same pitch of tune.

'Tis properly the Italian Trillo; the manner wherein we have described it comes far short of what an able master could shew relating thereto. The Italians use it more particularly after they have held out a note, or made a Roulade or Tirata of two or more measures to ease the voice, which so long a tension had weakened.

TRIO, is faid of a piece of music made to be performed by three voices; or more properly a composition consisting of three parts only. See Voice and Part.

Trios are the finest kinds of composition, and ought to be nicely regular. See CONCERT, HARMONY and COMPOSITION.

It is to be observed, that besides the general rules of counterpoint, which forbid that two octaves or two sistes follow one another, either to the bass, or among the other parts, in Trios the third must be heard in every time of the bar, either with the bass, or between the other two superior parts, i. e. that one of the parts make a third with the bass, and the other a fifth or octave.

Sometimes the fixth, accompanied with the octave or fourth, may be used instead of the third, because then the upper parts make a third among themselves.

Therefore the fifth and octave are very feldom to be used, because there will then be no third to the bass, or between the parts.

All discords may be used in Trios, the ninth must be accompanied with the third and fifth; as also very well with the seventh and redundant fifth, provided an octave follow.

The second must be accompanied by the fourth, and sollowed by the third. The fourth by the fifth or sixth, if it be syncoped, and sollowed by the third; if not, by the second, and sollowed by the fifth, just or salse, as the course of the song or harmony require.

The tritone must be accompanied by the fixth or second, and sollowed by the fixth, but seldom by the octave. The salse fifth must be accompanied by the third, or by a sixth,

and followed by a third.

The feventh major or minor if fyncoped, must be accompanied by the third, fifth, or ninth; feldom or never by the octave.

The superfluous fifth must be accompanied by the third,

The feventh major may be accompanied by the fecond or fixth, and fometimes by a fourth, if the bass holds on a note.

TRIPLA, is an *Italian* term which is not very proper, not being taken notice of in the dictionary di Crusca. This term is used in mathematics and music to express one of the multuple proportions between two numbers; and is when the larger contains the smaller three times precisely, as 3: 1, 6: 2, 9: 3. See Proportion.

For Tripla maggiore, minore, perfetta, imperfetta, di minime, di semi-minime, picciola, crometta, semi-crometta, &c. see

TRIPLE, or SESQUI and SUB.

TRIPLE, is one of the kinds of measure or time. See TIME and MEASURE.

TRIPLE Time, consists of many different species, whereof there are in general four, each of which has its varieties.

The common name of Triple Time is taken hence, that the whole or half of the bar is divisible into three parts, and beat accordingly, the first time down, the second with the return of the hand, and at last with the hand quite up, and it is this motion that makes what the Italians mean by the phrase Ondeggiare la mano. See ONDEGGIARE.

Our antients, i. e. fuch as have writ on music within these 400 years, had many different signs for shewing that the

measure was to be triple.

In the first they had no occasion for any fign after the cleff, or in any part of the song, which is still found in some modern

modern pieces, and is explained under the article Hemiolia, which see.

The second had certain lines after the cleff, which is set down under the article Mado, but this custom has been left off

above these 100 years. See Modo.

Besides they had many others, some of which the moderns have in some manner retained, which the reader may find under the articles PROLATION, and TEMPO or TIME.

But within these seventy or eighty years there have been invented many other species of Triple, which however may be brought under the three general heads of simple, compound, and mixed Triples.

The first species then is the simple triple, whose measure is equal either to three semi-breves, three minims, or three

crotchets, &c. which are thus marked $\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ \hline 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 & 16 \end{vmatrix}$

but the first is not much used, except in church music.

In all these the measure is divided into three parts called Times, wherefore 'tis called triple Time, or the measure of three times, whereof the first is beat down, the second up, and the last down.

And this again is divided into major, minor, picciola, crometta, and femi-crometta. The first is called major Triple, because breves, semibreves, or notes of such great value are used therein, and the measure is therefore to be beat slow, and of course each time of this is greater or of longer duration than those of the other.

The ancients had, and the Italians at present have, four different signs for triple major. The Tripla Maggiore persetta

is thus marked, +3 # ; the Tripla maggiore imperfetta,

thus ; Tripla sesqui altera maggiore persetta,

thus, 3 ; and Tripla sesqui altera maggiore imper-

fetta, thus, 3 . Whenever these signs were

used, three semi-breves, and therefore six minims, twelve crotchets, &c. were required in the bar.

The whole difference between the perfetta and imperfetta confisted in the value of the breve, which contained a whole

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bar without a point, when governed by the first and third characters, hence called perfect; and but two times under the direction of the second and fourth, if set without a point of augmentation, and this therefore is called imperfect, by reason it wants one half of itself to make up it's quantity of three times, or a whole bar. See Note and Point, or Punto.

Of these four signs the moderns have retained but one, viz.

3, without having the trouble of placing the circle or semicircle before them. These two cyphers explain enough, that
three semi-breves are required in the bar; and that a breve,
having naturally the length of two semi-breves without a
point, with one contains a whole measure; and the other
notes in proportion. This is usually beat large or adagio.

But it must be observed, that while several breves follow one another, whether tyed or not, they contain each three times or a measure, though not pointed, 'till there comes a semi-breve or two minims, or any note of less value, which alters the breve to two times; and in such cases, it wants a point to compleat the measure.

Also when many breves lye between two semi-breves, or between two rests of their value, the first and last then con-

tain but two times.

Thirdly, That the black notes, or as the Italians call them notte obscurate, whether breves, semi-breves, or in form of a lozenge, ought to be considered as if they were white.

Lastly, That the pauses or characters of silence under these signs contain only half of their usual quantities, so that the long instead of sour, contains but two minims; the breve but one for two, one or two semi-breve rests but one or two times of the measure. It would therefore be of service, and indeed 'tis almost necessary, to place a cypher to express the value of such pause, least in the performance, one should happen to mistake.

The fecond species of fimple Triple, by the Italians called Tripla minore, or Triple of semi-breves, or 3 for 2; for this also, our ancients had four different signs, according to which they called them by three different names, viz. prolazione

maggiore perfetta, thus distinguished, 530; prolazione

minore perfetta, thus, $(\frac{3}{1}, \frac{3}{1}, \frac{3}{2})$; and fesqui alters imperfetta, thus, $(\frac{3}{2})$.

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Under the direction of these signs the measure contained three minims, and consequently six crotchets, twelve quavers, &c. their differences depend entirely on the value of the semi-breve, which when governed by the three first characters a is bar without a point; but by the last it is but two times of the bar, and therefore wants a point of it's just quantity.

The moderns have retained the use of one of these characters only \(\frac{3}{2}\), without the semi-circle, (which its probable may be the reason for calling it duple Triple.) These cyphers being sufficient to shew that three minims are required in the bar instead of two in common time, and that the semi-breve naturally containing two minims, is therefore two times of the measure, and by the affistance of a point compleats the bar; and so of the other notes proportionally. The rules given, with respect to the breve, are here to be proportionally applied.

Again 'tis to be remarked, that we often find, especially in the *Italian* music, white quavers and semi-quavers, instead of black; and with regard to the characters of silence, that the long contains only four bars; the breve, two; the semi-breve, one; the minim, a third part of the measure; the crotchet rest, a sixth part; and the quaver rest, a twelsth part, &c.

The third species of simple Triple is called Tripola picciola, or sub sesqui terza, or Triple of 3 for 4.

It is diffinguished by three figns, $C_{\frac{3}{4}}$, or only $\frac{3}{4}$, and sometimes by a 3 alone; under the direction of either of these figns, three crotchets make a bar (whereas two are contained in a bar in binary or common time); six quavers, twelve semi-quavers; the minim pointed is a whole measure, and without a point, but two thirds thereof; 'tis usually played affettuoso or allegro.

As to the rests, the long ordinarily contains sour measures; the breve, two; the semi-breve, one; but the minim, which of right has two times, is never, or at least seldom, used, for two crotchet rests are placed in it's stead, which contain each a third of the measure; as the quaver rest is equal to a sixth part thereof, &c.

When the character $\frac{3}{4}$ is used, the air is to be played in a tender affecting manner, of a moderate movement, neither flow nor quick; when the simple 3 is used, the movement is ordinarily gay and lively: this is commonly the style of chacones, minuets, and such brisk airs.

The fourth species of fimple Triple, Tripla di crometta or ottina, Tripla di crome, or sub dupla, sub super bi partiente terza, usually called Triple of three for eight, or simply three eight, because

because it has the signs C_8^3 , or $\frac{3}{8}$ only; which shew that three quavers are a bar, and of consequence, six semi-quavers and twelve demi-semi-quavers, and that a crotchet without a point

contains two times, and with, a whole bar.

Under this character, the long rest, the breve and semibreve rests, ordinarily contain sour or two, and one measure, as in the other; as to the minim and crotchet rests, they are never used, but two quaver rests are placed instead of them, each whereof contains one third of the bar.

This kind of Triple is usually gay or animating.

The fifth and last species of simple Triple, is Tripla semicrometta, or disemi crome é crome, or 3 for 16 thus marked C_{16} , or only $\frac{3}{16}$, wherein three semi-quavers make a bar, (whereof fixteen are required in a measure in common time) and consequently six demi-semi quavers; a pointed quaver is a bar, and without a point, 'tis but two thirds or times of the measure.

In this species the long breve and semi-breve rests are sour, two, or one measure; but the minim, crotchet or quaver rests are never used, but sour semi-quaver rests placed instead of them.

'Tis easy to perceive that this species of *Triple* is proper for quick pieces, for each time thereof is of no greater length than a semi-quaver in ordinary movements.

Table of simple Triples.

Tripola mag.	minore	picciola	cromeita	jemi-crom.
3目	3 -0 -	3	3	3
largo or adag.	ado. lente or	affettuefo or	presto or firetto	prestissimo.

In the table above observe, first the names, secondly the signs, thirdly the characters, which contain a whole bar or three times in each, and lastly, the terms whereby the Italians express the movement in general of each species of simple Triple. See TIME and COMMON.

The fecond species is a compound Triple, consisting of nine crotchets, quavers, or semi-quavers, and marked accordingly, $\frac{9}{8}$, $\frac{9}{8}$, $\frac{9}{10}$; the first and last are little used: some add $\frac{9}{4}$ and $\frac{9}{2}$, that is, nine semi-breves, nine minims, but they are seldom

or never used.

This measure is divided into three equal parts or times, whereof two are beat down and one up; or each third part may

may be divided into three times, and beat like the fimple Triple, on which account 'tis called the measure of nine times.

The third species is a compound of the second, containing twelve crotchets, quavers, or semi-quavers in proportion, in a bar, marked $\frac{12}{4}$, $\frac{12}{8}$, $\frac{12}{16}$; to which some add, $\frac{12}{12}$, which are never used, nor are the first or last of the others, especially the last; but this is more properly a mixed Triple, of which we shall speak more at large.

The measure here may be divided into two times, and beat one down and one up, or each half may be divided and beat as the second species, either by two or three, in which case it will make in all twelve times; hence 'tis also called the measure of twelve times. But first of compound Triples, which

stand in the following order,

The first is what the Italians call Nonupla di semi-minime, or dupla sesqui quarta, and we 9 for 4, marked thus C₄, or ⁹/₄ alone; it has nine crotchets in a bar, three in each time; a minim pointed is a time, without a point only two thirds. The long, breve, and semi-breve rests, are usually 4, 2, and 1 bar; the minim one time, or a third of the bar; and the crotchet rest, a ninth part. It is beat and played moderately slow.

The fecond is called Nonupla di crome, or sesqui ottava, and our 9 for 8, thus distinguished C₃, or sesqui simply; wherein nine quavers make a bar, three for each time; a simple crotchet therefore is two thirds of a time, but when pointed, a whole one. The long, breve, and semi-breve rests are herein of the same value as in the former; the minim is never used, the crotchet rest is a time of the measure, the quaver a ninth part. This is proper for brisk and gay pieces.

The third is Nonupla di semi-crome, or subsuper setti partiente nona, or our 9 for 16, and hath the characters C 26, or 26, in which nine semi-quavers compleat the bar, (instead of sixteen in common time) three in each time, a pointed quaver is a whole time, but without a point, only two thirds; the long, breve, and semi-breve rests contain the same as in those above; the minim or crotchet rests are never used; the quaver rest is a third of the measure, and the semi-quaver a ninth; this Triple is to be played and beat quick.

Here it may be observed, that as there has been a great many species of Triples added by the moderns, it may not be amis, says Mr Brossard, nor is it difficult, to add to these three compound Triples two others ?, ?; the first whereof

may be called,

Nonupla di semi brevi, or sesqui nona, which requires nine semi-breves in a bar; i. e. three in each time, a pointed

Qq

breve

breve is one time, and without a point, only two thirds thereof; the long rest is equal to two measures, the breve one, and the semi-breve one time only; the minim rest a third of a time, or ninth of a bar. This is proper for soft and lament-

ing airs.

The fecond may be called Nonupla di minime, or Triple of 9 for 2, from the numbers whereby 'tis fignified 2, wherein nine minims are included in a bar, three for each time; a pointed femi-breve is a time, not pointed, but two thirds of it; the long rest is for two bars, the breve for one, the semi-breve one time, and the minim rest one third of a time, or a ninth of the whole measure: this is usually played lento or adagio.

Table of compound Triples.



The third species of *Triple* time, is called the *mixed Triple*; it's measure is equal to fix crotchets, fix quavers, fix semi-quavers, and accordingly marked $\frac{6}{4}$, $\frac{6}{8}$, or $\frac{6}{16}$; but the last is feldom used.

Some authors add two others, $\frac{6}{7}$ and $\frac{6}{2}$, but these are not much used.

The measure here is usually divided into two equal parts or times, whereof one is beat down, the other up; but it may also be divided into fix times, whereof the first two are beat down, the third up, the next two down, and the last up; i. e. each half of the measure is beat like the simple Triple; (on which account it may be called a compound Triple) and because it may be divided thus, either into two or fix times (that is two Triples,) 'tis called mixed, and by some, the measure of fix times.

Mixed Triples are divisible into two articles.

The mixed Triples that come under the first article, are the

following five,

The first is called Sestuplo, or measure of six times; tho' it should rather be called binary Triple; and this is the general name which the Italians give to all the five: we shall, for distinction sake, give the reader a separate and more particular explanation thereof.

The

The first then is Sestupla di semi-brevi, or Triple of 6 for 1, thus marked, $\frac{6}{1}$; which figures intimate, first, that six semi-breves are contained in the bar, three with the rise, and three with the fall of the hand; secondly, that a breve with a point is a whole time, without, only two thirds thereof; thirdly, that the long rest is two bars, the breve one, the semi-breve one time, the minim rest a fixth part, &c. This is very proper for mournful and languishing expressions.

The second species of mixed Triple, is Sextupla di minime, or Triple of 6 for 2, and is thus distinguished $\frac{6}{2}$; which shew that six minims make a bar, whereof but two are required in common time; that a semi-breve pointed is one time, unpointed, only two thirds, &c. In this the long rest is equal to two measures, the breve one, the semi-breve one time; i. e. either a rise or fall, and the minim rest a fixth part of the measure, or a third of a time: this is usually

played lente, tardo, grave, or adagio, &c.

The third is Sextupla di semi-minime, or superbi partiente quarta, or sesqui altera, or Triple of 6 for 4, thus distinguished, $C_{\frac{4}{7}}^6$, or $\frac{6}{4}$; which shews that six crotchets are contained in a bar, consequently twelve quavers, that is three crotchets in each time, for two in duple time; here the minim pointed is a time, without a point, only two thirds. The long rest is for sour bars, the breve two, the semi-breve one, the minim half a time, and the crotchet rest a sixth part. This movement is proper for moving tender expressions, though some use it in very hasty motions.

The fourth species is Sestupla di crome, or subsuper bipartiente terza, or sesqui terza, or our Triple of 6 for 8, and is thus distinguished, C_8^6 , or $\frac{6}{8}$; in which there are required six quavers in a bar, three for each time; a pointed crotchet herein is one time, not pointed, but two thirds; in this the long rest is four, the breve two, the semi-breve one measure, the minim half a time; the crotchet rest is never used, but they rather chuse to place two quaver rests; for one quaver is a third of a time. This is very proper for gay,

lively, animating strains.

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The fifth and last of this first article, is the Sestupla di semicrome of the Italians, and our 6 for 16; wherein six semiquavers make a bar, instead of sixteen in duple time, a pointed quaver is a whole time, tho' unpointed it is but two thirds; the long, breve, and semi-breve rest contain 4, 2, 1, measure, the minim half a one; the crotchet rest is never used, and that of the quaver very seldom, but two demi-semiquavers are placed instead of it. This is usually played pre-

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tissimo. See PRESTO, LARGO, ADAGIO, VI. VACE, &c.

The table of Sextuple or binary Triples.



Thus much for the species of mixed Triples that come under the first article of binary Triple, thus called because beat in two times. But some masters distinguish six times with the hand in a slow movement, as these $\frac{6}{1}$ and $\frac{6}{2}$; whence these are called measures of six times. And when the movement is so quick, that the hand cannot possibly distinguish so many, they mark but four; two long ones, which are the first and third, and two short, the second and sourth. This is what the Italians and others who are acquainted with their manner do, when the characters of the time are $\frac{6}{4}$ or $\frac{6}{3}$. But under the direction $\frac{5}{10}$, 'tis sufficient to beat the measure in two times; the motion thereof being so quick, that 'tis almost impossible to distinguish either six or sour times in the bar; and hence again this comes to be called binary Triple.

The mixed Triples that come under the second article, are called in general dodecupla, or measure of twelve times; and

these again are divided into five species.

The first is dodecupla di semi-brevi, or 12 for 1; thus called from it's figures, which shew that twelve semi-breves are contained in a bar, three in each time, and of course, six minims in each time; the breve pointed is one time, and only two thirds thereof without such point; the long rest two measures, the breve one, the semi-breve one time, the minim a third of a time; used in melancholly expressions.

The fecond species of this kind of triple is the dodecupla di minime, or 12 for 2; in which a bar contains twelve minims, three in each time; a pointed minim is one time, unpointed but a third part; the rests are, the long of two bars, the breve of one bar, the semi-breve one time, the minim a third

of a time; and this in folemn movements.

The third species of Triple of sour times is dodecupla difemi-minime, or 12 for 4, marked C 12, or 12; which sigures intimate, that twelve crotchets are required in a bar, instead of sour in common time, and therefore twenty-sour quavers instead of eight; in this the pointed minim is a time, unpointed

pointed but two thirds; the long rest is four, the breve two, and semi-breve one measure; the minim rest one time, the crotchet a twelsth of the bar; and is proper for lively and

animating movements.

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The fourth species is dodecupla di crome, or fesqui altera dupla, or super quadri partiente quarta; or 12 for 8, with these signs, $C_{\frac{12}{8}}^{12}$, or $\frac{12}{8}$ alone; in which twelve quavers compleat the bar, instead of eight in common time; a pointed crotchet is one time, and not pointed, only two thirds of a time; the long, breve, and semi-breve rests are for 4, 2, 1, bar; the minim half a one, the crotchet, (tho' three quaver rests, or a crotchet and quaver rests are used it's instead) one time, a quaver rest only a third. This is sit for gay and brisk motions. Sometimes the words affettuoso and adagio are placed to direct what the movement is to be; for of itself 'tis naturally quick.

The fifth and last species is dodecupla di semi-crome, subsuper bi partiente duodecima, or sesqui terza dupla, and our 12 for 16 thus marked C_{16}^{12} , or $\frac{12}{16}$; the measure whereof contains twelve semi-quavers, three in each time; a pointed quaver is one time, without a point, two thirds; the long, breve, and semi-breve rests are of the same length as in that above; the minim rest is two times or half a bar; the crotchet rest is never used, but the quaver rest, or rather thus γ , is one third of a time, and the semi-quaver is one third of a time, or twelfth

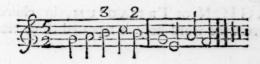
of a bar. This is commonly played very quick.

The Table:

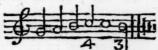


largo or ado. ad lento or grave | afet. or vivace | allegro or ado. | preftifimo.

Before we conclude we must observe, that Lorenza Penna in lib. 1. cap. 16. of his Alboré Musicali, mentions authors who had some designs of introducing two other kinds of mixed Triples; the first is 5, in which the measure contained five minims, instead of two in common time, three for the fall and two for the rise of the hand; as,



The second had these figures 2, in which seven minims made the bar instead of two; four for the fall of the hand, and three for rise; as,



But as this was joining two measures together, i. e. Triple with the fall of the hand, and binary with the rise, or binary with the rise and Triple with the fall; the former is the case in that marked $\frac{7}{2}$, the latter in that marked $\frac{7}{2}$; and these raising some difficulty and consusion, were rejected, and not

admitted into the number of mixed Triples.

Again observe, that as the fimple Triple, which is composed of notes of great value, such as the breve and semi-breve, is called Tripla maggiore; and the sour other species, according to the value of the notes used in them, are called minore, picciola, crometta, or semi-crometta; so also the species of the other kinds of Triple, as nonupla, sestupla, and dedecupla, have the same names applied to them in proportion to the notes of each.

Most of these Triples are mentioned by Maria Bononcini in his Musico Prattico; as also by Lorenza Penna, in the first

part of his Albori Muficali.

But Bontempi in his Historia Musica, says Mr Brossard, plainly demonstrates, that the greatest part of the names given by Bononcini to the modern Triples, are not sounded on their arithmetical proportions; after having observed that the last three species of the simple and compound, as well as mixed Triples, were entirely unknown, or at least disused, by those whom we call the fathers or inventors of counterpoint. But be that as it will, they are all introduced into the modern practice.

TRIPLICATO, tripled, as intervallo Triplicato, is an interval tripled; or when after having taken away 7 from any number, there remains 7 or some unites; as after having taken twice 7 from 17 which make 14, there remains 3: this shews that the seventeenth is the third tripled. See In-

TERVAL and THIRD.

TRIPOLA, the Italian word for triple, as Tripola di semi-brevi, di minime, di semi-minime, di crome, di semi-crome, crometta ottina, picciola, semi-crometta, &c. for which see TRIPLE.

TRISAGION or TRISAGIUM, in church history, a hymn wherein the word holy is repeated three times. See HYMN.

The

The proper Trisagion are those words, boly, boly, boly, Lord God of Hosts, which we read in Isaiah and the Revelations. From these words the church formed another Trisagium, which was rehearfed in Latin and in Greek in the respective churches, to this effect; holy God, holy fort, holy immortal! have mercy upon us. Petrus Fullensis to this added, thou who was crucified for us, have mercy upon us; thus attributing the paffion not to the Son alone, but to all the three Persons of the Trinity, and pronouncing anathema to all fuch as The use of this later Trisagion, would not do the fame. except the addition by Petrus Fullenfis, began in the church of Constantinople, from whence it passed into other churches in the east, and afterwards into those of the west. Balsamon Codin, Damascenus, and others, say it was in the time of the Patriarch Proclus, that 'twas first introduced, and on the following occasion: There being a violent earth-quake in the 35th year of young Theodofius, that Patriarch made grand processions; wherein, for several hours together, were sung the Kyrie Elieson, Lord have mercy upon us. While this was in hand, a child was taken up into the air, where it feems he heard the Angels finging the Trifagion just mentioned: he returned foon after, and told what he had heard; upon which they began to fing that hymn, and the more willing too, as they attributed the troubles they were then under, to the blasphemies which the heretics of Constantinople uttered against the Son. Ascelepiades, Cedrenus, Pope Felix, Nicephorus, &c. relate the same story. Petrus Fullensis, partriarch of Antioch, and a zealous partisan of Nestorius, endeavoured to corrupt the hymn by adding, who suffered for us, but in vain; it still subsists in it's primitive purity in the Latin and Greek, Ethiopic and Mozorabic offices.

TRITE, is a Greek term, which fignifies three or third.

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Three chords of the antient fystem were called by this name, from their actual situation in their proper tetrachords. See TETRACHORD, SYSTEM, and GENUS.

TRITE Diezeugmenon, the third found of the disjoint tetrachord; 'tis the C fol ut of the third octave of the Organ, and one of the figned cleffs. See CLEFF.

TRITE Hyperbolæon, the third found of the highest tetrachord, which answers to f of the third octave of the modern scale, was called by this name among the ancient Greeks. See System.

TRITE Synemmenon, the note B flat of the modern scale, was thus called in the ancient system.

With regard to the Trite Synemmenon of the ancient Diagramma, and for the better explanation of the meaning of

these terms, it may be observed,

First, That the two octaves which composed the ancient system, had one common chord called Mese; which was the highest of the low octave, and lowest of the high one, by us called the middle one, which is what the Greek word im-

plies.

Secondly, That among the four tetrachords of the ancient fystem, those called Meson and Diezeugmenon, in the middle of the scale, were not conjoint as the others were; for the Meson tetrachord was conjoined to the Hypaton, and the Diezeugmenon to the Hyperbolæon tetrachord; but these were disjoined in such a manner, that from the Mese, which was the highest chord of the Meson, to Paramese, the lowest chord of the Diezeugmenon tetrachord, there was a tone major.

Thirdly, (fays Mr Broffard) That according to the ancient doctrine, it was necessary, that to form a fourth, the first or lowest interval be a major semi-tone, the second a tone major, and the last or highest a tone minor. (See Tetrachord). And it was not possible, (tho' very necessary on many occasions) to make the Mese the lowest chord of a fourth, because there was naturally a tone major between it and Paramese; this tetrachord begun with a tone, contrary to the ge-

neral rule.

Here Mr Broffard may have erred a little; for Aristides, &c. make mention of three kinds of fourths, one of which begins with a semi-tone, for which see FOURTH and DIATESSARON.

Such is the nature of a fourth, that if there be either more or less than two tones and a semi-tone major, it becomes either redundant or desective. And hence it happens, that in the five fourths whereof the diatonic octave is composed, there is only one, viz. from F to B, which is false or redundant, being composed of three tones, which is a semi-tone minor more than the rest.



And as it was often very necessary to make the fourth from F to B just, it could not be done otherwise than by a placing

a found a femi-tone lower than Paramefe, which would give the fourth it's just quantity; therefore that found was accordingly put, and called Synemmenon, which is to fay, adjusted or added: by this means the lower side of it was a semi-tone minor, and the upper a semi-tone major to Paramese

This found has fince been known by the character by upon the line of B, which answers thereto; from whence arose the Bmol scale, i. e. a scale when we could leave our A instead of ascending a tone to Paramese, or our B; and afterwards a semi-tone to Trite Diezeugmenon, or our C, which is a third minor, (called by some beccare, harmonical or natural) we only ascend a semi-tone to Trite Synemmenon, or our B slat, omitting Paramese in ascending from thence to Paranete Synemmenon, or Trite Diezeugmenon, (only two different names for the same chord) or our C, which makes what some call the arithmetical third minor.

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TRITONE, an interval confisting of three tones, or a greater third and a tone major, which tone is divided into two semi-tones, one major the other minor. See CONCORD, THIRD, and TONE.

It's ratio or proportion in numbers, is as 45: 32; in dividing the octave, we find on one fide the falle fifth, and on the other the Tritone. See OCTAVE.

The Tritone is a kind of redundant third, consisting of three tones, whence it's name; or more properly of two tones and two semi-tones, one greater and one less, as from C to f #, or f to B natural, &c. But it is not, as some imagine, a greater or sharp fourth; because the fourth is a perfect interval, and does not admit of majority or minority; nor must the Tritone be consounded with the desective fifth, for the Tritone only comprehends sour degrees, ut, re, mi, fa sharp, whereas the desective fifth contains five, fa , sol, la, so, ut; besides that, among the six semi-tones which compose the Tritone chromatically, there are three greater and R r

three less; whereas, among the fix which compose the defective fifth, there are only two less, and four greater.

Again, the Tritone, as has been said, has it's origin from 45: 32, and the defective fifth arises from the proportion

64: 45. See PROPORTION.

Again, it's accompaniments are different from what the defective fifth requires, as the *Tritone* naturally demands the fecond and fixth; and the defective fifth, a third and fixth.

And lastly, the *Tritone* is resolved by a fixth, if the upper part ascend a degree, and the lower part descend the same; whereas, if the lower part ascend, and the upper part descend a degree, the descrive fifth is resolved by the third. See QUARTA and QUINTA.

TRITOS. See Protos.

TROMBA, may be either the common Trumpet, the Buccina of the ancients, or modern Sacbut, but more properly our Trumpet. See TRUMPET, SACBUT, and BUCCINA.

TROMBETTA, it's diminutive, a small Trumpet. TROMBONE, is really our Sacbut. See SAC-BUT.

TRONCO per grazia, what the French call coup de grace; is to intimate to the voices, as well as instruments, that they are not to draw out the sound to it's natural length, but cut it short; i. e. that they only continue it long enough to make it heard, by which means there is a small silence between each sound; which has a very good effect in expressions of grief, to make sighs, and also in expressions of wonder and surprize, &c.

TROPPES, Laws. See Mono and Tuono.

TRUMPET, a musical instrument, the loudest of all portable ones of the wind kind; used chiefly in war among the cavalry, to direct them in the service. See Music.

It is usually made of brass, often of filver, sometimes of

iron or tin, and rarely even of wood.

Moses, we read, made two of filver, to be used by the priests, Numbers cap. x. And Solomon made two hundred like those of Moses, as we are informed by Josephus, lib. 8. which abundantly shews the antiquity of the instrument.

The antients had various instruments of the Trumpet kind;

as Tubæ, Cornua, and Littui; which fee.

The modern Trumpet confifts of a mouth-piece near an inch a-cross, tho' the bottom thereof be only a third part so much. The pieces which convey the wind, are called the branches; the places where 'tis bent, the potences; and the canal between the second bend and the extremity, the pavilion;

the places where the branches take afunder, or are foldered together, the knots; which are five in number, and cover the joints. When the found of this instrument is well managed, 'tis of great compass. Indeed it's extent is not ftrictly determinable, fince it reaches as high as the ftrength of the breath can force it. A good breath will carry it beyond four octaves, which is the usual limit of the keys of

Spinets and Organs.

In war there are eight principal manners of founding the Trumbet; the first called the cavalquet, used when the army approaches a city, or passes thro' it in a march; second, the boute felle, used when the army is to decamp or march; third, is when they found to horse, and then to the standard; fourth, is the charge; the fifth, the watch; the fixth called the double cavalquet; the seventh, the chamade; and the eighth, the retreat. Besides these, there are various slourishes, voluntaries, &c. used in rejoycings.

There are people who blow the Trumpet fo foftly, and draw fo clear a found from it, that it is used not only in church,

but even in chamber music.

And it is on this account, that in the Italian and German music we frequently find parts entitled Tromba prima, or Ia. - first Trumpet; Tromba seconda, IIa. terza, IIIa. - second and third Trumpet, &c. as being intended to be played

with Trumpets.

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There are two notable defects in the Trumpet, observed by Mr Roberts in the Philisephical Transactions, wherein we have a very ingenious account of the cause of such defects: the first is, that it will only perform certain notes within it's compass, commonly called Trumpet notes; the second, that four of the notes it does perform, are out of tune.

The same defects are found in the Trumpet Marine, and the reason is the same in both. See TRUMPET MA-

The word Trumpet is derived from the French Trompette. Menage derives it from the Greek spoul o, Turbo, -a shell, anciently used for a Trumpet. Du Cange derives it from the corrupt Latin Trumpa, or the Italian Tromba, or Trombetta; others from the Geltic Trompill, which fignifies the fame thing.

TRUMPET MARINE, a musical instrument, consisting of three tables, which form it's triangular body. It has a very long neck, with one fingle ftring very thick, mounted on a bridge which is firm on one fide, and tremulous on the other. It is struck by a bow with one hand, and with the other the string is stopped or pressed on the neck, with the thumb.

It is the trembling of the bridge when struck, that makes it imitate the found of the trumpet, which it does to that persection, that it is scarce possible to distinguish one from the other.

And this is what has given it the denomination of Trumpet Marine, tho' in propriety it be a kind of monochord. See Monochord.

The Trumpet Marine has the same defects with the common Trumpet, viz. that it performs none but Trumpet notes,

and fome of these either too flat or too sharp.

The reason Mr Roberts accounts for, only premising that common observation of two unison strings, that if one be struck the other will move; the impulses made on the air by one string, setting the other in motion, which lyes in a disposition to have it's vibrations synchronous to them: to which it may be added, that a string will move, not only at the striking of an unison, but also at that of an octave or twelsth, there being no contrariety in their motions to hinder each other. See Unison and Chord.

Now in the Marine Trumpet, you do not stop close, as in other instruments, but touch the string gently with your thumb, whereby there is a mutual concurrence with the upper and the lower part of the string, to produce the sound. Hence 'tis concluded, that the Trumpet Marine yields no mufical sound, but when the stop makes the upper part of the string an aliquot part of the remainder, and consequently of the whole; otherwise the vibrations of the parts will stop one another, and make a sound, suitable to their motions, altogether consused: now these aliquot parts he shews to be the very stops which produce the Trumpet notes.

TRUMPET HARMONIOUS, is an instrument which imitates the sound of the Trumpet, and which resembles it in every thing, except that it is much longer, and consists of more branches. It is ordinarily called a Sacbut. See Sac-

BUT.

Speaking TRUMPET, is a tube from fix to fifteen foot long, made of tin perfectly straight, and with a very large aperture, the mouth-piece being big enough to receive both the lips.

The mouth being applied thereto, it carries the voice to a very great distance, so as it may be very distinctly heard a

mile, whence it is used at sea.

The invention of this Trumpet is held to be modern; and is commonly ascribed to Sir Samuel Moreland, who called it the Tuba Stentorophonica. But Anthony Kercher seems to have

have a better title to the invention of it; for 'tis certain he had such an instrument before Sir Samuel thought of his.

Kercher in his Phonurgia says, that the Trumpet published last year in England, he invented twenty four years before, and published in his Mussurgia: he adds, that faceb Albanus, Ghibbissus, and Fr. Eschinardus, ascribe it to him; and that G. Schottus testifies of him, that he had such an instrument in his chamber in the Roman college, with which he used to

call to, and receive answers from the porter.

Indeed confidering how famed Alexander the Great's tube was, wherewith he used to speak to his army, and which might be heard distinctly an hundred stadia or surlongs, 'tis somewhat strange that the moderns should pretend to the invention of it: the stentorophonic tube of Alexander, whereof there is a sigure preserved in the Vatican, being almost the same with that now in use. Some improvements were made in this instrument by Mr J. Conyers, who has given us another differing from this, in the Philisophical Transactions No 141.

Listening or Hearing TRUMPET, is an instrument invented by fos. Landini, to affist the ear in hearing persons who speak at a great distance, without the affistance of

the Speaking Trumpet.

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rn; alled to nave TUNE, is that property of founds whereby they come under the relations of acute and grave to one another. See

ACUTENESS, GRAVITY, and TONE.

Though gravity and acuteness be meer terms of relation, yet the ground of the relation. The *Tune* of the found is formething absolute, every found having it's own proper *Tune*, which must be under some determinate measure in the nature

of the thing.

The only difference then between one Tune and another, is in the degrees, which is naturally infinite; i. e. we conceive there is something positive in the cause of the sound, which is capable of more and less, and contains the measure of the degrees of tune; and because we do not suppose a least or greatest quantity of this, we conceive the degrees depending on those measures to be infinite. See Sound.

If two or more founds be compared together in this relation,

they are either equal or unequal in the degree of Tune.

Such as are equal are called unifons. See Unison.

The unequal conflitute what we call an interval, which is
the difference of Time between two founds. See Inter-

VAL.

Cause and measure of Tune, or that whereon the Tune of a found depends.

Sonorous bodies we find differ in tune. 1st. According to the different kinds of matter; thus a wedge of filver founds much more acute than one of gold of the fame shape and dimensions, in which case the tones are proportional to the specific gravity.

2d. According to the different quantities of the same matter in bodies of the same figure; a solid sphere of brass one foot diameter, sounds acuter than one of two foot diameter, in which case the *Tones* are proportional to the quantity of matter.

Here then are different tones connected with different specific gravities, and different quantities of matter; yet cannot the different degrees of *Tune* be refer'd to those different specific gravities and quantities of matter, as their immediate cause.

In effect, the measures of *Tune* are only fought in the relations of the motions that are the cause of found, which are no where so discernable as in vibrations of chords. See CHORD.

Sounds, we know, are produced in chords by their vibratory motions, not indeed only by those sensible vibrations of the whole chord, but by the insensible ones, which are influenced by the sensible, and in all probability proportional to them. So that sounds might be as justly measured in the latter as in the former, did they come under our senses; but even the sensible ones are too small and quick to be immediately measured. The only recourse we have, is to find what proportion they have to some other thing; which is effected by different tensions, or thickness, or lengths of chords, which in all other respects, excepting those mentioned, are the same. See VIBRATION.

Now, in the general, we find that in two chords, all things being equal, except tension, or thickness, or length, the tones are different; there must therefore be a difference in the vibrations, owing to those different tensions, &c. which difference can only be in the velocity of the courses and recourses of the chords, thro' the spaces wherein they move to and again.

Now, upon examining the proportion of the velocity, and the things just mentioned, whereon it depends, 'tis found to a demonstration, that all the vibrations of the same chord

are performed in equal times.

Hence, as the tone of a found depends on the nature of those vibrations, whose differences we can conceive no otherwise than as having different velocities; and as the small vibrations vibrations of the same chord are all performed in equal times; and 'tis found true in fact, that the sound of any body arising from one individual stroke, tho' it grow gradually weaker, yet continues the same tone from first to last; it follows, that the whole tone is necessarily connected with a certain quantity of Tune, in making every single vibration, or that a certain number of vibrations accomplished in a given time, constitutes a certain and determinate Tune; for the frequenter those vibrations are the more acute the tone, and the slower and sewer they are, the more grave the sound, tho' performed in the same space of time; so that any given note of a Tune is made by one certain measure of velocity of vibrations; i. e. such certain courses and recourses of a chord or string, in such a certain space of time, constitutes a determinate Tune.

This theory is strongly supported by our best and latest writers on musick, Dr Holder, after Gallileo, &c. both by reason and experience. Dr Wallis, who owns it very reasonable, adds, that 'tis evident the degrees of acuteness are reciprocally as the lengths of the chords; tho' he says he will not positively affirm, that the degrees of acuteness answer the number of vibrations as their true cause: but his diffidence arises hence, that he doubts whether the thing has been sufficiently proved by experiment. Indeed, whether the different number of vibrations in a given time is the true cause, on the part of the object, of our perceiving a difference of Tune, is a thing which we conceive does not come within the reach of experiment. It is enough that the hypothesis is reasonable. See Concord, Harmony, &c.

TUBA, is the Latin name of our common Trumpet, as Tromba is the Italian. See TROMBA or TRUMPET.

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TUBA ductilis, the Sacbut. See POSAUNE, TROM-BONE OF SACKBUT.

TUONO, an Italian term, which fignifies in Greek Tonos, in Latin Tonus, and among us Tone; and is to be understood in many fenses. See Ton E.

As first it signifies meerly a sound, as of a Bell or other instrument; and thus we say a melodious Tone, a disagreeable Tone, &c. and often a certain instexion of a human voice proper to express different passions of the soul; and in this sense we say a sweet agreeable Tone, a harsh and rough Tone, a fierce and imperious Tone, &c. But as these significations rather regard physics and grammar than music, we shall pass them over, and observe three others, which more properly belong to this subject.

The first is when the word Tone signifies a certain determinate degree of sound which regulates all the rest; thus we

fay a Flute or Bassoon, &c. has the Tone of such an Organ, &c. when it's C fol ut, and of course it's other sounds in proportion, is unison or octave to the C fol ut of that Organ, &c. In this sense also we say, the Tone of the choir, which means a certain mediate degree or pitch of tune, proportioned to the voices whereof 'tis composed; in great congregations, 'tis especially necessary that the dominant Tone of every song used therein be given, that the people may know their pitch.

The fecond, and indeed the most proper signification of the word *Tone* is, when 'tis taken for one of the intervals of mufic, and even for the chief, the fundamental, the rise, rule, and measure of all the other intervals. In this sense, the ancient Musicians and Mathematicians distinguish two forts of

Tones, i. e. major and minor.

The Tone major, whose proportion is fefqui, cetave of 9:8, is the middle interval of each fourth; and the tone minor, the proportion whereof is fefqui nona, or 9:10, is the third interval of every fourth.

It is likewise in this sense, that the moderns (supposing all the Tones in the systema temperato to be nearly equal) say Tone is the interval that is between every degree or note of a diatonic or natural octave, except mi and fa; and as the

French say, fi and ut, or our E and F, or B, and C; which are naturally but semi-tones: but that supposition is not altogether just, as appears from what has been said above of the Tones major and minor. And lastly, 'tis in this sense, a Tone is called a second major, because 'tis the interval between two sounds, distant from one another nine commas, a minor Tone, or ten, a major Tone; consequently a Tone is composed of, or divisible into, nine or ten commas. See Comma.

The third, last, and most general acceptation of the word Tone, is when we, like the ancient Grecians, use it to express what the moderns since Glarean call mode, that is the manner of arranging sounds explained under the article Mode: and more particularly what the Halians call Tuoni Ecclesiassici, and we the Tones of church music.

Many things might here be faid concerning the origin, number, quality, effects, forms, uses, &c. of these Tones; 1st. The history thereof, and their different names among

the ancients, and at present. 2d. The characters whereby any particular mode is known; and lastly, the use that might be made of such knowledge with respect to the practice of the plain song, and vocal as well as instrumental music; but as we have treated thereof under the word Mode, we shall refer the reader thereto; and only add, that,

They commonly and regularly reckon eight tones or modes in what is now generally called the Gregorian chant, four

whereof are authentic, and four plagal.

The four authentic modes are, the Dorian, the Phrygian, the Lydian, and the Mixolydian of the ancients; see each in it's place.

S. Miroclet Bishop of Milan, or (according to a more probable and common opinion) St Ambrose chose these tones about the year 370, for compositions for the church of Milan; from him called the Ambrosian chant.

Or, according to many other opinions, 'twas from the choice and approbation of those two great men, that these four first tones came to be denominated chosen, or approved,

i. e. authentic.

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It may here be observed, that eleven of the chords of the ancient system, were sufficient to form these four tones; the Lychanos Hypaton, or the Re of our second octave, was the lowest chord of the first tone, and Paranete Hyperbolæon, the highest of the fourth; so that Nete Hyperbolæon, which was the highest chord, and Parhypate Hypaton, Hypate Hypaton, and Proflambanomenos, which were the three lowest chords of the ancient system, were not used; which St Gregory, about 280 years after St Ambrose, observing, added to these four authentic tones, four others called plagal, which were the Hypodorian, Hypophrygian, Hypolidian, and Hypomixolydian; and by this means introduced the use of the whole hiteen chords of the ancient system into the church music; the lowest chord of the Hypodorian tone was Proslambanomenos, or the Amila of our second octave; and from this time each of the four authentic tones has had a plagal one for it's collateral, i. e. to ferve by way of supplement thereto: and hence arose that division of the tones or modes into ranks and classes; for which see Protos.

The first and second tones were of the first class.

The third and fourth of the second. The fifth and fixth, of the third.

And the seventh and eighth, of the fourth class, according to the following table.

Sf

	Proton.	Deuter	n.17	rito	n. 17	etarton	. The same of the
Tones.	5 1	3	1	5	1	7	Authentic modes.
Tones.	2	4	1	6	1	8	Plagal modes.

With regard to this table two things are to be observed; first, that the authentic modes are signified by the cyphers 1, 3, 5, 7, whence they are called unequal; and that the plagal tones are represented by 2, 4, 6, 8, therefore called equal tones. As these names are often met with among authors, 'tis necessary to know what they mean.

The fecond observation to be made on this table is, that the authentic modes are placed above the plagal, because, beside their name, they are in effect their superior, principal, key, dominant, &c. and the plagal beneath them, as being collateral, subordinate, subservient, dependants, &c. to the authentic.

To determine in what tone or mode a fong is composed,

three things are necessary to be observed.

1. The final or last note of the fong.

2. The compass thereof, either above or below the tone of the mode.

3. The dominant, i. e. the fifth, or note which is oftenest

heard in the course of the piece.

First then, by the final, the rank or class of the tone wherein the fong is composed is easily discerned, because each of these classes has one note appropriated to it in such a manner, that it always serves as a final to the two modes of that class.

The final of the two modes of the first class 1, 2, is

Re.

The two tones of the fecond class 3, 4, have mi for their final.

Fa is the final of those of the third class 5, 6.

And those of the last class 7, 8, have always fol for their final.

Consequently, for example, when a song ends with Re, it may be concluded to be composed in one of the two tones of the first class, i. e. either 1 or 2; and when it ends with mi, it appears to be in the second class, and of course in either the

third or fourth mode, and fo of the rest.

But it may here be objected, that some pieces end in La, others on Si, as the French say, and others again on Ut, &c. 'cis true; but the nores la si ut, i. e. the sounds by them expressed, are in the same proportion among themselves, as those expressed by the sillables re, mi, fa; we may therefore as well say, that

La stands in the place of Re. Si for Mi, and Ut for Fa.

So that the fong is still the same, only transposed either a fifth higher, or a fourth lower, if this transposition change not the nature of the air, or the natural order of the sounds; it therefore cannot alter it's rank or class, it being easy to say la, si, ut, instead of re, mi, fa, being in effect the same thing: hence it appears, that the two tones of the first class commonly and naturally have re for their final, which by transposition, is changed to la; and so of the others.

Table of natural finals, and those by transposition.

First rank.	Second.	Third.	Fourth.
Re or Lu, transposed.	Mi or Fa, transposed.	Fra or Ut, transposed.	
+ h lower or 5th higher.	ditto.	l ditto.	ditto.

This is not enough, for as each class contains two tones, one authentic and one plagal, it remains to determine in which of the two the piece is composed; in order to which, regard is to be had to the compass thereof, whether in the course of the song it rise or fall above or below the extent of the tone.

First, If the whole extent of the song be eight or nine degrees above it's final, and not one below, 'tis an authentic mode, and therefore the first of every class.

It may be observed, that songs composed in authentic modes, may move nine or more degrees above their final without ceasing to be authentic.

Secondly, And if on the contrary, the fong descend sour or five degrees below it's final, and ascend but five or fix above it, the mode therefore is plagal, and consequently is the under one of each class.

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But if the piece has so much compass as to rise eight or nine degrees above it's final, and fall sour or sive below (as in many of the songs of the Romish church) the tone or mode is said to be mixed, as participating of both authentic and plagal.

Again, there are many fongs in the Romish rites that do not move thro' the extent of their octave, which are therefore called incompleat modes; and to know in what mode

Sf2

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these portions are composed, regard must be had to their final or lowest note, and dominant, i. e. the note which is oftenest heard in the course of the song. And if the dominant be found five or six degrees above the final, the tone is authentic; if three or sour below, it may be concluded plagal; in short, let the song be of whatsoever compass or extent, the only sure way of finding out what mode 'tis composed in, is by thus examining it's final and dominant.

The following table included in two verses, at once shews the finals and dominants of every mode, according to the order

of the French scale in Si.

Pri. R.E., L.A., sec. R.E., F.A., ter. MI, UT, quartquoq; MI, L.A.

Quint F.A., UT, sext. F.A., L.A., sept. SOL, R.E., oft. quoq; SOL, UT.

As for example.



To make this intelligible, observe, 1st. The syllables, pri. sec. ter. &c. are abbreviations of primus, secundus, &c. 2d. That the mono-syllables after them, are the names of the finals, and dominants of each tone.

The Intenations (as the French fay) i. e. the four, five, or fix first notes of the fong end usually on the dominant of

the mode.

All anthems, fays Mr Broffard, end with the final of the mode, and the Evovæ, that is, the fong of Sæculorum amen, always begin with the dominant of the tone wherein the pre-

ceeding anthem was composed.

The answers in the matins end always with the final, and the verse immediately following, begins with the dominant; the contrary seldom is met with: and this dominant is so often repeated therein, that 'tis no difficult matter to find it out.

The last notes of the entries or beginnings is always the final of the tone, and the note that is chiefly heard in the psalm, and the Gloria Patri which follow them, is always the dominant.

Observe

Observe that what has here been said, regards only regular modes, beside which in the whole body of the modern plain song, there are some sew which may be called irregular.

This knowledge of the Tone, wherein a piece is composed,

is principally necessary upon three occasions.

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First, To give the first note of it to the choir.

Secondly, To keep it up. And, Lastly, to give the first

note of the pfalms and canticles of divine worship.

First, To give the first note to the choir, is to begin part of an office, as matins, laudes, vespers, &c. at a certain note or degree of tune fo proportioned to the voices whereof 'tis composed, as that in the progress thereof, tho' the fong may rife or fall five or fix degrees higher or lower than that note, still the Tone may be kept up and heard plainly, without forcing any particular voice in the congregation; and the better to perform this, it were very convenient to have a bell or pipe of an Organ fet to that pitch, and founded from time to time, by means whereof the found would be fixed in the mind, or if it were at any time loft, it might eafily by this means be refreshed in the imagination. (This practice a learned Benedictine recommended in a treatife wrote in 1673, which, fays Mr Broffard, is the best that has ever appeared on the knowledge and practice of the plain fong.) At least in those churches that have Organs, it would be very easy for the Organist to sound it in such a manner, as that the choir may without difficulty perceive it. But as this custom is not generally practifed, the priests may at least attempt to find some method of their own, in order to which the following rules may be of fervice to them.

I. They must consider of what voices their congregations are composed, whether high or shrill voices, such as women and children have; or low and grave voices, or of a middle pitch such as men have, which may be called tenors or basses, as every man has a different command of voice, some high

for the tenor, others low for the bass.

II. That among the dominants of the modes there are some that agree with grave, and some with acute voices; they must therefore make choice of one proper for their choir. 'Tis certain that A mi la, the dominant of the first Tone, is proper for grave or mediate voices, insomuch that they can rise five or fix degrees higher, or descend five or fix lower at pleasure, and this without any inconvenience or forcing the Organs; A mi la therefore is proper for the tone of church music, to be performed by such voices; consequently in a congregation composed of such, the office should begin with A mi la: On the other hand, Re in D la re the dominant

of the seventh Tone, is well adapted to high voices; in choirs therefore composed of such, the office should begin with that found.

III. Then to know what degree or pitch of tune is to be given to this A mi la, or D la re, 'tis here that some instrument, but particularly a stroke on the Organ, would be of great fervice. But to supply that, it is necessary that every one examine or measure the natural compass of his voice; if he have a very low voice, this A mila is almost his highest note, but such a one is not often met with. If he have a pitch of voice called a tenor, 'tis nearly the middle found in his reach, and if he have one of those called Hautcontres or treble. this A mi la is almost his lowest found. But a little use and a good example from a mafter, will make this clearer than words can express. 'Tis not enough to give a good Tone at once off hand, but 'tis also absolutely necessary to keep it up through the different pieces, whereof the office begun in this Tone is composed. Among the many methods proposed by the Benedictine abovementioned, that which is most generally practifed is, to make all the dominants of the different pieces in the office unifon with the first Tone, which consequently is capable of bearing the different names of those dominants. and may be called in one piece la, in another fa, in a third ut, in another re, &c. For example, first suppose the vespers, Deus in Adjutorium, begun with A mi la, and the anthem or first psalm be of the first, fourth, or fixth Tones; as the dominant of each of these Tones is la, and of course the same found A mila is the Tone of the choir, there is not much difficulty in giving the name and found A mi la to the congregation.

Secondly, If by chance a pfalm or anthem of the third, fifth, or eighth Tone whose dominants are uts, should come in the service, then the Tone of the choir is called ut, tho' in

reality 'tis the same A mi la.

Thirdly, If an anthem or plalm of the second Tone happen to come in, the Tone of the choir will still be A mi la, though they call it by the name of fa, because fa is the dominant thereof.

And, Lastly, If the accidental psalm or anthem be of the feventh Tone, as its dominant is re, the Tone of the choir will

be called re, though it be the same A mi la.

The annexed tables will exhibit and make eafy what has above been faid, in which the dominants of the eight Tones are all upon the line A mi la, and marked with square notes, by means of which this practice of reducing the tones is much facilitated. The black notes are the finals of every tone transposed



transposed more or less high or low, according as their dominants are changed.

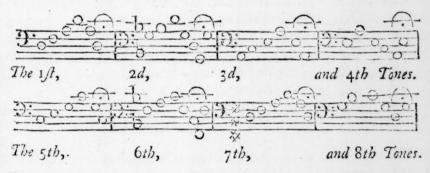
The first table is for reducing the dominants to the found of A mi la, for low voices, and the second to that of D la re,

for high ones. (See Plate annexed.)

It may be remarked, that those rules ought, and indeed are observed with regard to the first, fourth, fixth and seventh Tones; but 'tis strange these same rules are not regarded with respect to the second, third, fifth and eighth, which are so exactly sollowed as to the seventh mode.

The difficulty and nicety of the transpositions, which were necessary to reduce the dominants of these four Tones to one sound, having puzzled the ancient Organists, they chose rather to change the situation of the Tone of the choir, and place it sometimes a semi-tone higher as in the second, sometimes a tone lower as in the fifth, and sometimes a third minor higher, as in the third and eighth tones, than to trouble themselves about such transposition.

But what is still more strange is, that the greatest part of Musicians, without any reason, so blindly sollow this custom, that 'tis almost a crime to note the eight tones otherwise than in the sollowing table.



Tis plain, that by placing the dominant of the fifth Tone in G re fol, i. e. a Tone higer than the tone of the choir, it forces the voice, fo that its low notes are scarce heard; and the same happens by placing the dominant of the third and eighth Tones a third minor higher than the pitch of the choir; for by this the voice is strained almost to a squal, especially if the song runs high. To avoid both these inconveniences, several Organists began to introduce the method of playing, First, The fifth tone in D la re natural or third minor, like the seventh tone, because by this its dominant was A mila unison to the Tone of the choir.

Secondly, The third Tone is G re fol flat like the fecond, for thereby the dominant rifing but a femi-tone higher

than A mi la, the voices were not at all forced; and on the other hand they were not obliged to make intricate transpositions. This may suffice with respect to the shrill voices in the choir.

Lastly, If this knowledge of the Tones is necessary in the practice of the plain chant, certain it is, 'tis principally so with respect to the psalms and canticles in the Romish rites; for 'tis a general and infallible rule, that the psalm or canticle ought to be sung in the same Tone with the preceeding anthem, because the psalm and the anthem are reckoned together as one song. It therefore is highly useful to know at once the tone of the anthem, in order to begin the psalm agreeing therewith in the same.

We shall not here pretend to say what these songs or chants are, since every church has its particular rules relating thereto; but shall only add, that to sing a psalm well, these three things must be observed; the intonation or setting the pitch and first note; the mediation or rest in the middle,

and the Evovæ, or ending.

First, With regard to the manner of beginning or setting the first note, the psalms of every Tone have a particular sound appropriated to them (in the Roman and other churches,) which for the ease of the memory are ingeniously summed up in the five following lines:

Primus cum sexto, fa, sol, la, semper habeto; Ut, re, fa, sed mæsta moduletur lingua secundo. Sol, la, ut, octavus resonabit, sic quoque ternus: La, sol, la, quartus; fa, la, ut, sit tibi quintus: Septimus ut, si, ut, re, censetur semper habere.

The first note of these intonations is the dominant of the tone; in the psalms only the first verse is begun as above, all the others begin with the dominant from the first syllable; as to the canticles, all their verses begin like the first of the psalm.

Secondly, With respect to the mediation; 'tis a sort of rest or silence, which ought to be made in the middle of every verse, as well to have time to ease and take breath, as to keep up the gravity necessary in the service; it ends always with the dominant of every Tone, but the seventh, in which

it ends a Tone higher.

Lastly, The Evovæ is a word formed, for brevity's sake, of the six vowels in the words Sæculorum amen. There are a fort of books called by the French Psautiers and Antiphoniers, and by us Psalteries, which contain the rules of certain churches,

churches, and which shew the note whereon to end every verse of the psalms and canticles; and as every Tone has many endings (except the second) those books are to be consulted as well as the custom and practice of the church, for an infinity of other particularities belonging to them.

TUTTI, in the Italian music intimates, that all the

parts are to play together, or to make a full concert.

In this sense the word Tutti, stands opposite to foli or folo. See Solo.

This word is often expressed by omnes, ripiéno, da capella,

Choro, esc. See each under its proper article.

TYMPANO, or TYMPANUM, a Timbal, a musical instrument, which among the ancients consisted of a thin piece of leather or skin, stretched on a circle of wood or iron, and beat with the hand. See DRUM.

This may be our kettle-drum, as it appears to be from the *Italians* using the word *Tympano* for a pair of tymbals of an unequal fize tuned a fourth, the least wherof gives the acute sound, the largest the grave one; the first is *C fol ut*, the latter *G re fol*, a fourth lower; they serve for a bass in a concert, or airs designed for Trumpets; we from hence meet with parts marked *Tympano*, which shew that they are destined for this instrument.

V.

The simple letter V, is often used to shew a piece defigned for the violin; if these be two, the piece is for two Violins or more: Again among the Roman cyphers it stands for five; and lastly, if the letter S be thereto added, V. S. it signifies volti subito, i. e. turn over quick. See Volti.

VACUA, Notte vacue; the minim and semi-breve may properly be called Notte vacue, by reason their heads are open O, in distinction to Notte piène, the heads whereof

are filled up E ; these are by the Italians called

Notte bianche o nere. See Note.

VAGANTE Suoni. See SUONI.

VALORE, Value, Content; as the value of a note is understood of the length of time it contains; for example, the value, content or length of the large is eight semi-breves, that of the long sour, and so of the rest; but see Figure, Note and Character.

VALUTA, the same with valore. See VALORE.

VARIAMENTO, an *Italian* adverb, which means in a varied manner full of changes and variations. See VA-RIATION.

VARIATION, is the different manner of playing or finging the fame fong, air or tune, either by subdividing the notes into several others of less value, or by adding of graces in such a manner however, as that one may still discern the ground of the tune thro' all the enrichments, which by some French musicians are called Embroideries.

Thus for instance, the divers copulets of chacones, Spanish Follies, which the French call Follies d' Espagne; and are properly Fardinal's ground Passecailles, &c. are so many Variations; so also many diminutions of courants, gavots and other pieces for the Lute, Harpsichord and Violin are really Variations, but more properly so called, when played by the Violin alone.

VARIATO, the same with variamento. VARIAZIONE. See VARIATION.

VELOCE, quick, nearly the same with Vivace. See VIVACE.

VELOCISSAMENTE, or VELOCISSIMO, very quick, with great Precipitation; this word is feldom met with, for they use the words presto or prestissimo in it's stead. See PRESTO.

VERBERO. See SYNCOPE.

VERGELLA, or VERGHETTA. See VIRGU-

VERSE, the modern Verse is very severely handled by Vossi us, who makes it intirely unfit for music. "Our Verses, fays he, run as it were all in one foot, without any diffinction of numbers, or parts, and have no rythmus at all, without regard to the natural quantities of the syllables; for we mind nothing but to have a certain number thereof

"in a verse, of whatever nature or order." See RHYTHMUS.

Mr Malcolm attempts to vindicate our Verse from this imputation. It is true, we don't follow the metrical composition of the ancients, yet we have such a mixture of strong and soft, long and short syllables, as makes our Verses run smooth or rumbling, slow or rapid, agreeable to the subject, of which Mr Pope has given us very fine examples in these lines:

Soft is the strain, when Zephyrs gently blow. The hoarse rough Verse should like the torrent roar. The line too labours, and the words more slow. Flies o'er th' unbending ears, and skims along the plain.

To which may be added the following:

And like a wounded snake, drags his slow length along. So ten dull words oft creep in one dull line.

By making a small change or transposition of a word or syllable in any of these Verses, any one who has an ear will find, that we make great matter of the nature and order of the syllables.

Vossius adds, that the ancient odes were sung as to the rhythmus, in the same manner as we scan them, every foot being a distinct bar or measure, separated by a different pause; tho in reading, that distinction was not so strictly observed.

Again he says, that their odes had a regular return of the same kind of Verse, and the same quantity of syllables in the same place of the Verse, whereas in those of the moderns, to follow the natural quantity of our syllables, every stanza would be a distinct song. De poëmatum Cantu. See Ode.

The

The Greek and Latin Verses are the Hexamater, Pentamater, Iambics, Hendecasyllaba, Trochaics, &c. each of which had it's particular time or measure, when proposed to be fung.

Heroic and Alexandrine Verses confist of twelve or thirteen

fyllables, and are of modern invention.

The ancients had likewise various other kinds of Verses, or poetical devises, as cantos, ecchos, monorhyms, &c. to which they had a particular regard in compositions of music.

See RYTHMICA and METRICA.

The kinds of feet used in the Latin Verse are various, their number is about twenty eight, of which some are called simple, as not being composed of others, and some compound for the contrary reason; of the simple there are sour of two syllables, and eight of three.

The fimple of two syllables are, .

1. Pyrrhichius, formed	of two short syllables, as	ferus.
2. Spondæus,	of two long,	aūdāx.
3. Iambus,	of one short, one long,	potens.
4. Trochæus or Choreus,	of one long, one fhort,	rūră.

The simple of three syllables are,

I.	Tribrachys, formed	of three short fyllables,	as placida.
2.	Moloffus,	of three long.	āmēntūm.
3.	Anapæstas,	of two fhort, one long,	animans.
4.	Dactylus,	of one long, two fhort,	āngliā.
5.	Amphybrachys,	one long betw. two fhort,	ămīcus.
6.	Anphimacer,	one fhort betw. two long	densitas.
	Bacchius,	one short, two long,	gigantum.
8.	Antibacchius,	two long, one short,	concretus.

Composed,

1. Proceleusmaticus	, of two Pyrrhics,	as hominibus.
2. Dispondæus,	of two Spondæuses,	āmphītrītē.
3. Dijambus,	of two Iambuses,	amoenitas.
4. Ditrochaus,	of two Trochæuses,	impeditus.

Mixt,

1	. Antipastus,	an Iambus and Trochæus,	abortiv us
2	. Choriambus,	a Trochæus and Iambus,	ābrotonum.
3	. Ionicus major,	a Spondæus and Pyrrhichius,	ābrūmpere.
4	. Ionicus minor,	a Pyrrhichius and Spondæus,	jaculorum.
			A

A Paon confists of one long and three short syllables in different positions.

- 1. Pæon, of a Trochæus and Pyrrichius, as innocuus.
- 2. Pæon, of an lambus and Pyrrhichius, potentia.
- 3. Pæon, of a Pyrrnichius and Trochæus, scelerātus.
- 4. Paon, of a Pyrrhichius and Trochæus, apologon.

An Epitritus is contrary, i. e. one short syllable and three long, variously disposed.

- 1. Epitritus, of an Iambus and Spondæus, as abactorum.
- 2. Epitritus, of a Trochæus and Spondæus, pērmanēntūm,
- 3. Epitritus, of a Spondæus and Iambus, concordiae.
- 4. Epitritus, cf a Spondæus and Trochæus, immutatque.

Verses in the church music, are certian parts of psalms or anthems sung by one or more voices, which according to their number are called by the Italians Soli; (see Solo,) and seem as it were detached from the whole body or choir, which may be otherwise called the grand chorus.

VERSETTA, is the Latin Versiculus, a little short

verse. See VERSE.

d

VERSO, See VERSE.

VERTE subito, Latin terms which fignify the same with the Italian volti subito, — turn over the leaf quickly. See Volti.

VERTUOSO. See VIRTU.

VESPERTINI Pfalmi, are evening fongs. See SAL-

UGALE, or UGALMENT, fignify equal or equally.

VIBRATION, a regular reciprocal motion of a body; for instance of a chord, which being suspended at freedom,

vibrates first this, and then that way.

The Vibrations of a stretched chord or string arise from it's elasticity, which power being the same kind with that of gravity, the Vibrations of chords follow the same laws as those of pendulums, consequently the Vibrations of the same chord equally stretched, tho' they be unequal in length, are equidiumnal, or performed in the same space of time, or to speak more properly, in equal times; and the squares of the times of the Vibrations are among themselves inversly, as the powers

powers whereby they are equally bent and inflected. See STRING.

VIETATI Intervalli. See INTERVAL.

VIETATO, forbidden, that must not be done, either because not according to rule, or as not having an effect proper to the end of music, that is, such a one as does not affect the ear with pleasure. There are Passagi vietati and Intervalli vietati. See Passage.

VIGESSIMO, the twentieth, one of the intervals in music, which is the fixth tripled. See SIXTH and INTER-

VAL.

VIGOROSO, or VIGOROSAMENTE, fignify to

fing or play with vigor, ftrength and firmnefs.

VILLANELLA, rustick, peasant-like, a fort of dance, or rather air, to which country people or peasants dance; there are some of this kind that are very agreeable, having in them something very gay and enlivening proper to the design thereof; the first copulet is usually played plain and simple, afterwards come an infinity of variations, diminutions, &c. they answer in some respects to our country dances.

VIOLA, a musical instrument of the same form with the Violin, and struck like that with a bow; 'tis by the Italians denominated a tenor violin. See VIOLIN.

Of this instrument there are several forts and sizes; they

are usually strung with four strings.

VIOLA di Gamba, Leg-Viol, tho' we call it fimply Viol, the Italians add di Gamba, because 'tis held between the legs

to be played on.

Of this kind there were formerly whole chefts which contained fets of them, such as trebles, tenors, counter-tenors, basses and double basses; each of which was mounted with fix strings, having eight stops or frets divided by semi-tones,

Their found is very foft and agreeable. The tablature or music for this instrument is laid down on fix lines or rules,

There are yet remaining pieces, being a fort of fancies

defigned for these instruments only.

What the Italians call Alto Viola, is the counter-tenor of this; and their Viola Tenore, the tenor. They sometimes call it simply Viola. Some authors will have it the Lyra, others the Cythara, others the Chelis, and others the Testuda of the ancients. See Lyra, Cythara, &c.

VIOLA Tenore, a tenor Viol, VIOLA Basso, a bass Viol. VIOLA d' Amour, or Love Viol, is a kind of triple viol or violin, having fix brass or steel strings, like those of the Harpsichord, ordinarily played with a bow.

It yields a kind of filver found, and has fomething in it

very agreeable and foft, whence it's name.

The bastard viol of the *Italians* (not used among us) Mr Brossard takes to be a kind of bass viol mounted with six or seven strings, tuned as the common one.

What the Italians call Viola di Brachia, — Arm-Viol, or fimply Brachia, — Arm, is an inftrument answering to our

counter-tenor.

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Their Viola prima, or first Viol, is really our countertenor Violin; at least they commonly use the cleff of C fol ut, on the first line to denote the piece intended for this instrument.

Their Viola fecunda is much the same with our tenor Violin, having the key C fol ut, on the second line.

Their Viola terza, is nearly our counter tenor Violin; the key

C fol ut, on the third line.

Their Viola quarto, or fourth Viol, is not known in England or France, tho' we frequently find it in Italian compositions;

the key on the fourth line from the top.

VIOLETTA, or LITTLE VIOL, is in reality, our triple Viol. This term is frequently confounded by strangers, with what has been said of Viola prima, seconda, terza, &c.

VIOLIN or FIDDLE, is a musical instrument mount-

ed with four strings or guts, and struck with a bow.

The Violin, like most other instruments, consists of three parts; the neck, the table, and the sound-board; at the sides are two apertures, and sometimes a third is added towards the top, shaped like a heart.

It's bridge which is below the apertures, bears up the strings which are fastened to the two extreams of the instrument, at one end of them to a screw, which stretches or

loofens them at pleafure.

The style and sound of the *Violin* is the gayest, most lively, and sprightly of all instruments; and hence it is of all others the sittest for dancing. Yet there are ways of touching it which render it grave, soft, and languishing, and sit for church or chamber music.

It generally makes the treble or highest part in concerts.

It is tuned by fifths: it's play is composed of bass, countertenor, tenor and treble; to which may be added a fifth part: each part has four fifths, which rise to a greater seventeenth. See FIFTH, In compositions of music, the Violin is denoted by V. and two V V. denote two Violins.

The word Violin stands for treble Violin; when the Italians prefix alto, tenore, or basso, it then expresses the counter-tenor, tenor, and bass Violin. See TREBLE, TENOR, and BASS.

In compositions, where there are two or more Violins, they make use of the words prima, seconda, terza, &c. of the characters. I', III', III' ; or of these figures, I', 2', 3',

&c. to denote the difference.

The Violin has only four strings, each whereof is of a different thickness; the smallest makes the E si mi of the highest octave of the organ; the second, a fifth below the first, makes the A mi la; the third, a fifth below the second, is D la re; lastly, the sourth, a fifth below the third, is G re sol.

The largest or sourth string has sour notes belonging to it, viz. G re sol ut, or G, which is to be played open, A la mi re, or A must be stopped with the fore-singer, of the left hand, almost at the distance of an inch from the nut; B fa be mi or B, with the second singer about half an inch from the first, and C sol fa ut, with the third singer close

to the fecond.

The third has also four notes, D la fol re, is struck open; E la mi, must be stopped with the fore finger about an inch from the nut; F fa ut, with the second finger close to the first; and G re fol ut, (on which note the cless is commonly marked) with the third finger $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch from the second.

The fecond string has four notes, A la mi re, or A is the open string; B fa be mi, or B, is with the fore finger, about an inch from the nut; C fol fa ut, is the second finger closeto the first; and D la fol re, or D, is the third

finger about three quarters of an inch from the fecond.

The least or treble string, has usually six notes, E la, open; F fa ut, or F, the fore singer very near the nut; G fol re ut, or G, the second about three quarters of an inch from the first; A la mi re, or A, with the third singer at the same distance from the second; B fa be mi, with the little singer half an inch from the third; and lastly, C fa ut, you must stretch the little singer about a quarter of an inch farther than for B fa be mi. But here it must be observed, that all the notes on the treble string, except E la, or E, are termed in alt for distinction's sake. For slat, sharp, and gamut, see FLAT, SHARP, &c. For time, note, bar, and rest, see TIME, NOTE, BAR, and REST.

Most

Most nations ordinarily use the cleff G re sol on the second line from the bottom, to denote the music for this instrument; the French alone use the same cleff on the lowest line; the first method is best when the song goes very low; the second best when it goes very high.

VIOLINCELLO of the *Italians*, is properly what we call the Bass Violin with four strings, sometimes even five or fix; but those are not common, the first being most used a-

mong us.

VIOLINISTA, a person that plays, or is a master of the Violin.

VIOLINO concertante, concertini, or di concertino, those Violins, whether first or second, that play throughout the piece, in distinction to Violini ripiéni, Violins that play in particular places, as in grand chorus, to fill up or compleat the harmony.

VIOLONO, a large Bass Violin or double bass, every way as big again as the common one; and the strings, which are four, bigger and longer in proportion, consequently it's sound must be an octave deeper than that of the Violincello, or Bass Violin; it has a noble effect in great concerts. See CONCERT and VIOLINCELLO.

VIRGULA, a Latin term, for which the Italians say Vergetta or Verghetta, both which signify, that line drawn from the head of a note either upwards or downwards, which we commonly call the tail thereof. Bontempi, in his Historia Musica, distinguishes several kinds.

Vergetta ascendente, the tail turned upwards. Vergetta descendente, or pendente, the contrary.

Each of these tails may be drawn on the right or left side of the head of a breve; if on the right, the Italians used the phrase Vergetta ascendente, or pendente della parte destra; if on the lest, della parte sinistra.

These different situations make a great difference in the value of these notes, especially when they are tyed; for which see LEGATURE.

Vergetta dritta, a strajt tail, as of a minim or crotchet

Vergetta obliqua, one that has a little hook at the end, as

that of a quaver ; this hook may be on either fide.

Vergetta bistorta, a tail that has two of these little hooks at it's extremity, on either side at pleasure; as our semi-qua-

ver Ey.

VIRTU, in Italian, not only means that habitude of the foul which renders us agreeable in the fight of God, and makes us act according to the rules of reason, but also that fuperiority of genius, address and ability, that makes us excel (either in the theory or practice of any art, &c.) many others who equally apply themselves thereto. From whence they form the adjective Virtuofo or Virtudioso, which often stand as substantives when used in praise of any one that Providence has bleffed with that superiority or excellence: thus an excellent Painter, or an able Architect, &c. are called Virtuofi. But this epithet, fays Mr Broffard, is oftener given to eminent Musicians, than to any other artist; and among them, rather to those who apply themselves to the theory of that art, than the practice: fo that among them, to fay a Virtuofo, would be understood an excellent The French have only the word Illustre that can Mulician. answer to the Virtuoso of the Italian. We use the word Virtuofo, but in a more extended sense, it not being fixed to any particular art, but is applied to any person excelling in his art, be it what it will; if it be at all limitted among us, 'tis to the learned in physic and natural history, or philofophy.

VISTAMENTE, or VISTO, quick, without delay,

briskly. See PRESTO.

VIVACE, vivacemente, or vivamente, - with life and spirit; that is a degree of movement between largo and allegro, but nearer allegro than largo. See ALLEGRO and LARGO.

VIVACESSIMO, a degree or two quicker than vivace, and denotes a movement much the same as allegro. Tho' Mr Brossard says, it being the superlative degree of vivace, consequently must signify an extream quick motion.

UNDECIMA, the eleventh, one of the intervals in mufic, which is the fourth doubled. See INTERVAL and

FOURTH.

ULTIMA conjunctarum. See TRITE SYNEMME-

ULTIMA divisarum. See NETE DIEZEUGMENON and System.

ULTIMA excellentium. See NETE HYPERBOLÆON and SYSTEM.

UNDU-

UNDULATORY, is applied to a motion in the air, whereby it's parts are agitated, after like manner as waves in the sea; as is supposed to be the case of the string of a musical instrument when struck. See STRING.

This Undulatory motion of the air, is supposed the matter

or cause of found. See Sound.

Instead of Undulatory, this is by some called vibratory mo-

tion. See VIBRATION.

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UNISON, is the effect of two founds which are equal in degree of tune, or in point of gravity and acuteness: as Gaudentius says, qui nec acumine, nec gravitate inter se differunt. See GRAVITY and ACUTENESS.

Or Unifon may be defined a consonance of two sounds produced by two bodies, of the same matter, length, thickness, tension, &c. equally struck, and at the same time, so

that they yield the same tune or found.

Or it is the Union of two founds, so like each other, that the ear perceiving no difference, receives them as one and

the fame found. See SOUND and OCTAVE.

What constitutes Unifonance, is the equality of the numbers of vibrations of the two fonorous bodies in equal times; where there is an inequality in that respect, and consequently an inequality in degree of tune, the unequal sounds constitute what Musicians call an interval. See INTERVAL and VI-BRATION.

Unison is the first and greatest of concords, and the foundation, or as some call it, the mother of all the rest; yet some deny it to be any concord at all, maintaining it to be only that in sounds, which unity is in numbers, Aristoxenus, and most of the antients, according to Vossius, are of the former opinion.

Others restrain the word concord to interval, and make it include a difference of tune, but this is precarious; for as the word concord signifies an agreement of sounds, it is

applicable to unifons in the first degree.

But the Unisonance or equality of tune, makes the most perfect agreement of sound, it is not true, that the nearer any two sounds come to an equality of tune, they are the more agreeable. The mind is delighted with variety, and the reason of the agreeableness or disagreeableness of two sounds, must be ascribed to some other cause than the equality or inequality of the number of their vibrations. See Concord,

'Tis a famed phnæomenon in music, that an intense sound being raised either with the voice or a sonorous body, another sonorous body near it, whose tune is either Unison or octave

Uu 2

above

above that found, will found it's proper note Unison or octave to the given note.

The experiment is easily tryed by the strings of two inftruments, or by the Voice and a Harpsichord, or a Bell, or

even a drinking-glass.

This our Philosophers account for thus: one string being struck, and the air put in motion thereby, every other string within the reach of that motion will receive some impression therefrom. But each string can only move with a determinate velocity of recourses or vibrations, and all unisons proceed from equal and equidiurnal vibrations, and the other concords from other proportions: the Unison string then keeping pace with the sounding string, as having the same measure of vibrations, must have it's motion continued and still improved, 'till it become sensible, and give it a distinct sound; other concording strings have their motions propagated in different degrees, according to the frequency of the coincidence of the vibrations with those of the sounding string: the octave therefore most sensibly, the fifth next, afterwards the crossing of the motions, prevents any effect.

This they illustrate by a pendulum, which being fet a moving, the motion may be continued and augmented by making frequent light coincident impulses, as blowing on it when the vibration is just ended; but if it be touched by any cross or opposite motion, and this too frequently, the motion

thereof will be interruped and cease altogether.

So of two Unifon strings, if the one be forcibly struck, it communicates motion by the air to the other; and being equidiurnal in their vibrations, i. e. sinishing them precisely together, the motion of that other will be improved and heightened by the frequent impulses received from the vibrations of the first, because sinished precisely when that other has sinished it's vibrations, and is ready to return. But if the vibrations of the chords be unequal in duration, there will be a crossing of motions more or less, according to the proportion of that inequality, by which the motion of the untouched string will be so checked, as never to become sensible.

And this we find in the case in all consonances except Unisons, octaves, and fifths. See CHORD and STRING.

UNISONUS, the same with unison.

UNPOCO, an Italian adverb, which when taken as fuch, fignifies a little; 'tis often put before the terms allegro, adagio, presto, piano, &c. and then weakens the strength of their fignification, i. e. shews that the movement under their direction, is not to be so much of either of them, as when this word is omitted. As allegro fignifies briskly and gayly, but

unpoce

unpoco allegro, is a little briskly; and so of the other. But if between them is put the word piu, i. e. more, the movement is to be played more gayly than allegro itself directs; as unpoco piu allegro,—a little more briskly; on the contrary, if the word men or meno be placed there instead of piu, it diminishes the force of the word, as unpoco meno allegro,—a little less gayly. See Allegro, Adago, &c.

VOCAL MUSIC, is music set to words, especially verses, to be performed with the voice. In contradiction to instrumental music, composed for, and to be executed by in-

firuments without finging. See Music.

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this but Poetry then makes a necessary part of Vocal music, and this appears to have been the chief, if not the only practice of the ancients, from the definitions they give us of music.

Their Vocal music appears to have had some advantage over ours, in that the Greek and Latin languages were better contrived to please the ear, than the modern ones. In effect, Vossius taxes all the latter language as unfit for music, and says, We shall never have any good Vocal music, 'till our poets make verses on the model of the ancients, i. e. 'till the ancient metrical feet and quantities be restored.'

But it is to be observed, that the rhythmus of their Vocal music, was only that of their Poetry, and had no other forms or mutations than those the metrical art afforded.

Their changes of rhythmus were no other than from one kind of metrum to another, as from iambic to choraic, &c. See Rhythmus.

Their Vocal music consisted then of verses set to musical tunes, and sung by one or more voices in chorus; sometimes, alternately with, and sometimes without the accompanyments of instruments.

For instrumental music, in the manner we have described it, i. e. in parts, 'tis not, some say, very clear they had any. See SYNAULIA.

VOCE, Voice. See Voice and Sound.

Voce fola,—the voice alone; this in Italian, fignifies a piece composed for a fingle voice, generally accompanied with a thorough bass for the Harpsichord or Organ, without other instruments. But if besides that, it is to be accompanied by other instruments, they add, con Violini,—with Violins, dué Violini, è Violincello, è basso per l'Organo,— with two Violins, a bass Violin, and a thorough bass on the Organ; con Violini, or stromenti, — with Violins or instruments; con è senza,—with and without instruments; partè con, parte senza Violini, — part with, and part without Violins, &c.

VOICE, a found produced in the throat and mouth of an animal, by an apparatus of instruments for that purpose. See Sound.

Voice in general fignifies a found or noise, but in music

more particularly a human Voice.

Among the various founds that this modification of the air (for fuch it is) produces, there are founds that admit of no difference of tune, as the histing of Serpents; others that do admit a difference of tune, but are not articulate, as the noises of animals, whistling of birds; and lastly, there are others subject to great variations of tune, and articulate at the same time, i. e. so different one from another, that 'tis easy for the ear to perceive their changes; such as the Voices of men and women: 'tis these that are the objects of music, and from these music executed solely by Voices is called vocal music, as being performed by natural Organs. See Music.

The feven degrees of found within the compass of the octave, which are distinguished by the mono-syllables Ut, re,

mi, &c. are by the Italians called Voces musicali.

Voices are generally divided into three classes; of the first are the high or shrill Voices, or those performed by women and children; of the second are mediate Voices, or Voices of a middle pitch of tune, neither high nor low; of the last and deep Voices, which consist of low and grave sounds, both which are performed by men, different persons having different compasses; these three answer to the parts of music called treble, tenor, and bass; and of these are made as many parts as the composer pleases.

As the harmony of concerts is no more than a well proportioned mixture of these Voices, either simple, doubled, or tripled, &c. the different parts whereof the concert is composed, are very often called Voices; thus they say in Italian a piece or composition is a dué, a tré voce, &c. or simply, a due, a tre, &c. the word Voice being understood, to shew

that the piece confifts of fo many different parts.

There are some indeed, that call the parts destined for instruments, so many Voces, by reason instruments were invented for no other cause than either artificially, to imitate it, supply it's place, or accompany it. But this is to apply the term improperly; the Germans are very particular in their distinction of vocal and instrumental parts; they have a word stimme, which is a general term, and signifies part, be it either for Voice or instrument, but they always add the adjective, vocal or instrumental thereto, to make a proper distinction.

It must here be observed, that these three Voices usually do not exceed four octaves from their gravest to their acutest found, which forms the four octaves of the Organ, and is the ordinary limit of other instruments; so that all composition, of what number of parts foever, do not go beyond this extent. 'Tis often necessary, that the parts (especially the vocal) have not this whole compass, because when they rife to their highest, or fall to the lowest sounds, they may be so forced, as that they are rendered false and disagreeable; so that to retrench the compass, they take off some of the upper founds, and if the Voice rise to A mila, 'tis as high as it can well go, without a great uneafiness to the performer; and others are taken off from the lower octave, for there are few Voices can go farther than Fut fa, or E si mi, clear enough to be distinctly heard. As to the middle parts, 'tis left to the composer's fancy to manage them as he thinks fit; but the general rule is, that the parts for either of these voices be fo disposed, as that the notes may not rise or fall far above or below the staff of five lines, which are destined for each cless. But this only regards the vocal parts, for in instrumental mufic they exceed even the four octaves, and are obliged to those five lines to add three or four others, as well above as below, and thereby the compass of the piece may rise too near five octaves, and this is at present practised without any fcruple.

Aristoxenus makes a difference in the motions of the Voice, and fays it has two species of motion, continual, and divided into intervals; the continual, is when it keeps the same degree of tune, and appears to the ear as neither rifing or falling, (as in reading in the mono-tone). Vocis—duæ quedam - funt motus species; continua scilicet & intervallis disjuncta; forming no determinate differences of gravity and acuteness, but continuing the same from beginning to end. species of motion divided into intervals, is quite the contrary, and has many changes in point of tune, at one time high or shrill, at another grave or deep; be it in what proportion foever, paffing from one degree of gravity or acuteness to another, still changing as it proceeds. When the Voice moves in such a manner as not to seem to fatisfy the ear, 'tis called continual; cum vox ita movetur, ut nullibi confistere auditui videatur, continuum dicimus buncce motum; when on the other hand it proceeds by intervals, it's motion is faid to be gradual, be the intermediate degrees large or fmall; it still moves from one degree to another, and fixes fome particular tune in the mind; whereas the continual found, when once finished leaves no impression. And this gradual motion may again be diffinguished into two kinds, which Aristoneous and others, call intensio and remissio; intensio Vocis, is the raising it by degrees, in whatever ratios, from a grave to a more acute

found, as remissio is the contrary.

An author in the Philisophical Transactions, fays the dispofitions and abilities of people, may be conjectured from the tones of their Voice and manner of speaking; but how creditable what he alledges may be, we do not take upon us to determine.

VOLTA, joined with a numeral adjective, fignifies once or one time, or as the numeral is; thus fi replica una volta, - please to play that part over again; centa volte, -

an hundred times, &c.

VOLTA, a fort of dance of Italian origin, in which the man turns the woman feveral times, and then affifts her to make a leap or jump; 'tis a species of galliard. See GAL-LIARD.

VOLTARE, turn over, this imperative is often joined with presto, subito, &c. to acquaint the Musician to turn over the leaf, and that the fong continues on the other fide: But to fay true, this expression is a little rough and imperious, which therefore is remedied by adding Voftra Signoria volti si piace, - turn over if you please, Sir; or abridged V. S. volti, adding the words fubito, presto, or even prestissimo if the movement require it to be done in haste.

VOLTI. See VOLTARE.

VOLTI si piace, -turn over if you please. See VOLTARE.

VOLUNTARY, that which a Musician plays extempore according to his fancy, before he begins to fet himself to play any particular piece, to try the instrument, and to lead him into the piece fo to be played. See PRE-LUDE and PHANTASIA.

USUS, usage, custom, habitude, or that frequent repetition of the fame thing, in order to facilitate the execution thereof; but in music the word has a signification something different, of which we shall endeavour to speak more

largely

To enter rightly into the meaning of the word, 'tis neceffary first to know what the melopæia is; melopæia then is the art or knowledge of rules for arranging founds in fuccession, i. e. one after another, so that such arrangement produce good melody; this divides itself into three parts, by the Greeks called Lepsis, Mixis, and Chresis, by the Latins Sumptio, Mistio and Usus, and by the Italians presa, Mescolamento and Uso.

Prefa,

Presa, Sumptio or the Lepsis of the Greeks, say Aristides, Euclid, Martianus Capella, &c. and after them Bontempi, teach a composer in what system, that is, in what species of octave he may place or dispose the sounds which compose his song, whether among the Hypatoides or grave sounds, Mesoides or sounds of a middle degree, or Netoides among the high sounds, and consequently in what mode or tone his song is to proceed, and with what sound he ought to begin and end. Sumptio est per quam musico invenire datur a quali vocis loco systema sit saciendum; utrum ab hypatoides, an re-

Lquorum aliquo. Aristid. p. 29.

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Mescolomento or Mistio is the second branch of the melopoeia, which gives certain rules how to join and mix founds one among another in fuch a manner, as that the voice or found may always be within a certain compals, that the three genera or kinds of modulation, diatonic, chromatic and enharmonic may be conveniently disposed, and that the fong never move out of the system, that is, the limit or mode wherein 'tis begun, unless with some particular defign. Mistio est per quam aut sonos inter se, aut vocis locos coagmentamus, aut modulationis genera, aut modorum systemata. Aristid. 'Tis properly no more, than after having begun the fong, to purfue it without forcing any particular found therein, i. e. raising it too high, or falling too low, or using any forbidden intervals, and well placing the natural, effential, necessary, or accidental chords of the mode, to go out of it and enter it again conveniently; in a word according to the modern expression, 'tis the art of modulating well. See MODULATION and MODE.

Usus, is the other branch of the melopæia, which comprehends rules and directions how the founds should follow one another, in what situation each of them may or can be, in order to form an agreeable melody or good modulation.

Usus est certa quadam modulationis confectio.

There are, fays Aristides, three species of Usus, to which

we shall add a fourth from Euclid.

The first is that called by the Grecians Agoge, by the Latins ductus, and by the Italians conducimento, and is, when the sounds follow one another di grado or in conjoint degrees, i. e. from one to another without missing any intermediate degree. Of ductus there are three kinds, the first is ductus rectus, or conducimento retto, when the notes or sounds follow one another immediately rising, as thus,



which the Italians also call di Grado ascendente.

The second is Ductus revertens, or Conducimento ritornante, and is, when the sounds follow one another immediately de-

fcending, as which is likewise called by

the Italians di grado descendente.

The third is ductus circumcurrens, or conducimento circoncorrente, and is after having ascended by natural or diatonic chords, they descend by the same degrees, except instead of B natural, B moll or slat is touched in this descent, or when the descent is by B natural, and the ascent by B moll, as in the following example.



The fecond species of Usus, called by the Greeks Ploki by the Latins Nexus, and by the Italians Nesso, is when in passing from one sound to another, that which is next the first in situation not being sounded but sometimes two, three or more are omitted, and that either ascending or descending; this makes what the Italians call di salto, (see Salto;) and in this case the sounds are said to move by disjoint degrees. Nexus autem est, qui per transilentia intervalla, aut sonos duos vel etiam plures, unum tonum progreditur, aut graviora horum aut accutiora præponens, & cantum efficiens. Aristid.

The third kind of Usus by the Grecians is called Petteia, and by the Italians Pettia: For the better explanation hereof, it must be observed, first, that sounds in general have the property and force of themselves to excite in man what the Latins call Mores, and the Italians Costume, that is, certain inward emotions, termed by Philosophers affections or passions; the sounds of the trumpet and drum are sensible and continual proofs thereof, especially among

Warriors, who are greatly animated thereby.

Again there are among them certain founds that are more proper to excite certain passions and emotions than others, as there are also founds that affect more in one disposition than another; some particularly cause joy, others forrow, others again gayety and courage: When a song proceeds in the natural or diatonic order, it seems something gay and enlivening, as on the contrary when it proceeds by B moll, or flat, it is more soft, sweet and affecting.

Thirdly

Thirdly, The different combination of founds one with another, or the passages so alternately made from grave to acute, and è contra, either by conjoint degrees, as that called Conducimento, or by disjoint called Nesso, which makes certain leaps among them, have no small share in stirring up the passions. The third minor ascending is particularly mournful and lamenting, as on the contrary descending, 'tis gay and joyous; the other intervals also have their particular effects under certain circumstances, for which see each under it's proper article, Fourth, Fifth, Octave, &c.

Again certain it is, that a frequent repetition of the fame found immediately or without the interpolition of any other, and that repetition varied into quick and flow, or the found only continued or held out a confiderable time, fensibly

produce very different effects.

'Tis the Petteia, says Aristides, that lays us down certain rules and methods of discerning justly all the different manners of ranging and combining sounds one among another, of placing them in proper order, and in such a manner, as that they produce the desired effects, that is, that they move or excite any different passion at pleasure; and consequently 'tis this that shews us what sounds may or may not be employed in the course of a piece, which may and how often they may be repeated, whether to rise or fall, especially in the Nesso, or to proceed contrarily. See Pettela.

Now Euclid gives an explication of the parts of the melopæia fomething different; for after having laid it down as a certainty, that the melopæia is properly the art of ranging and disposing sounds, and bringing into practice the precepts of harmony; he proceeds to add, that there are sour ways of so doing; the two first quadrate with the Dustus and Nexus, as described by Aristides, but the Petteia he defines to be no more than a frequent repetition of the same sound: This, says Mr Brossard, is true, but adds, that it needs a little more

explanation.

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To these he adds a sourth, and calls it extentio, which indeed is no more than a continuation of the same sound so a longer or shorter time. Melopæia est usus partium harmonices. Quatuor vero sunt quibus melopæia perspicitur, dustus, nexus, petteia, extensio. Dustus itaque est cantilenæ via per deinceps positos sonos consecta; nexus verò contra via permutata spatiorum positio alterna; petteia est percussio in uno eodemque sono frequenter sasta; extensio est diuturnior mora, que una vocis prolatione conficitur. Euclid. Intro. Harm. pag. 2.

True it is, that among what we have from the ancients, here are a great many excellent rules for properly ranging

X x 2

founds

founds one after another, so as to make melody; and so that by such progression all our different passions may be moved. But, says Mr Brossard, we do not find a word concerning the properly disposing sounds one above another, i. e. so as to form an agreement or union between them called concord, or a disagreement called discord, and contrast between those two, which when heard together, make what we call harmony. Now, says that author, what strong and noble expressions do we not meet with in those pieces called concerts, arising from the agreeable mixture of concords and discords.

We find, continues that author, that the ancients had certain figns to shew when a found was to be held a longer or shorter time; but, adds he, the adherents to the ancient practice will find some difficulty to prove that their measure was so just and regular as ours, by which our composers are surnished with that great variety of strong and lively expressions; and from hence he concludes, that as they practised not harmony or time as we do, it necessarily sollows, that their music was not near so perfect as that of the moderns.

We cannot pretend to fay any thing in defence of the ancient music, when so learned a man as Mr Brossard taxes it with fo much imperfection; yet this may be faid without perfumption, that as we find mention made of many things whereof we have only the name but no explanation thereto, it may with reason be thought, that had all their works come to our hands, we should have no occasion to accuse them of ignorance in an art in those days so generally practised, and univerfally esteemed; for what we have of theirs are scarce any more than a few general hints, which instead of clearing up the matter, lead us into great obscurities: And again it may not feem altogether abfurd to imagine, that time has devoured many excellent treatifes which would have put us in a better method of practice, fince those which have escaped the common wreck, excellent in this kind, feem to intimate, that there were before them fuch as were extremely useful to them when a living science, and which no doubt, could they be retrieved, would give us something more satisfactory:

UT, the name of the first of the musical syllables, which the Italians call Voce Musicale, (see Note) of which there are fix, Ut, re, mi, fa, sol, la, to which a seventh was added

by one Le Maire, called ft. See Note.

Ut cleffs are two, G re fol ut, and C fol fa ut. See CLEFF.
This name with the other fix were taken by Guido Aretine
out of the first strophe of a hymn of & John the Baptist,
beginning, Ut quaant laxis, &c. See Music.

The Italians in folfaing, instead of Ut, use the syllable do by reason of the harsh and disagreeable pronounciation of the letter U in their language. 'Tis usually called the first note in music as 'twas the first syllable of the hymn, from whence with the rest it was taken.

The ancients called the found represented by this syllable Parhypate Hypaton, and it's octave higher, Trite Diezeng-

menon.

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ed e, ul

ch re led

F.

ine

The

In our scale we distinguish two Uts, the one natural by Beccare called C. fol ut, the other artificial by B moll or stat, F fa ut; and when we only say ut, we mean C fol ut, the ut in F fa ut, being no more than a transposition of the other, either a fifth lower or a sourth higher; 'tis also the name of one of our cless, and is that appropriated to the tenor.

See CHOIR, or rather CLEFF.

Before Zarlin the rank of the modes was very uncertain; fome placing the first mode in Amila, because that was the first note of the ancient diagram, and the other in D la re, in order to render their division in authentic and plagal more easy, (see Mode;) but at last Zarlin fix'd the ranks of the twelve musical modes in ut, because 'twas the first sound of the modern system; so that the first and second modes are in C natural, and transposed in F fa ut, by B moll a fourth higher, the third and sourth are in D la re, and so of the rest, according to the natural order of the notes. See Mode and Tuono.

UT QUEANT LAXIS, &c. a hymn of St John the Baptist, composed about 770, in the time of Charlemagne, according to Possevin, by Paul, deacon of the church of Aquillia, samous in music, by reason the syllables whereby the sounds are distinguished, were taken from the first strophe

thereof. See Music or HAND.

W.

WIND INSTRUMENTS, are instruments played or made to found by wind, and that either natural from the mouth, or artificial from machines called bellows contrived for that purpose, and fixed to the instrument so to be played.

Instruments made to sound by the Breath or natural Wind, are the Flute, Fistula, Trumpet, Horn, &c. See each in it's

place.

And those whereto are fixed bellows or leather bags to give them Wind, are, the Organ, Bag-pipe, &c. See ORGAN and BAG-PIPE.

The Wind Instruments of the ancients were, the Tibia, Fistula, Syringa of Pan, consisting of seven reeds joined side-wise; also Organ, Tuba or Trumpet, Cornua, Lituus, &c. See ORGAN, &c.

Those of the moderns are, the Flutes, Bag-pipes, Hautboy, Trumpet, Organ, &c. the ancients called this kind of musical instruments Emphysomena, Pneumatica or Emponeoussa, and the Italians call them Stromenti da Fiato. See STROMENTO.

WIRE, a piece of metal, as gold, silver, brass, iron, &c. drawn thro' a hole in an iron, into a thread of a fineness an-

fwerable to the hole it pass thro'.

Among the many other uses of Wires they are used for the strings of several musical instruments, as Harpschords, Spinets, Psalteries, Dulcimers, Bell-harps, Harps, &c. there are various sizes thereof from $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch, to $\frac{1}{200}$ of an inch diameter, the smallest sizes are used upon this occasion.

Tis observed that a gold string will sound stronger than one of silver, and that more so than one of brass, and that a steel string will give a feebler sound than either of them,

tho' of the same dimensions, length, tension, &c.

X.

X, Signifies properly no more than decima or ten, as Opera.

Y.

Y, Is fometimes used instead of I, in the following words:

YASTIO, one of the ancient Greek modes or tones. See IASTIO.

YONICO, the Ionic mode of the Greeks. See IONICO.

Z. december 12. As loss q 1 . Z. em est 5.7

ZAMPOGNA, sometimes written Sampogna, the same as the Latin Fistula, is in short any instrument that sounds like a Flute and particularly a Bag-pipe, being an assemblage of divers pipes of different sizes. 'Tis also taken for a common Flute, Flute a bec. See FLUTE and BAG-PIPE.

ZOPPO, in Latin Claudus, lame, decrepid, hopping; it is from hence that they call those counter-points described under the articles Persidiato, Obligato, &c. Contrapunti alla Zoppa, — lame or hopping Counter-points, because, as one is obliged to place in each bar to the subject given one note between two others, that is as long as them both, which, when it comes to be played or sung, by the frequent syncopes, seems to proceed by a leap, or in a jumping manner. There are Contrapunti alla Zoppa sopra il Sogetto, as well as sotto il Sogetto, i. e. above and below the Subject. See Sogetto, Sopra and Sopto.

ZUFFOLO, a little Flute or Flageolet, that has a very shrill found like the whistling of small Birds; and it's chief use to play to them, in order to teach them a tune; 'is in Latin called Sibilus. See FLAGEOLET.

ERRATA.

DAGE 9 line 1 for two read three. Ibid 28 for vorum r. verum. Ibid penult for connonical, r. canonical, p. 22 l. 16, after the r. Italian. p. 24 l. 13, dele \(\frac{3}{6}\), p. 31 l. 27, dele an. p. 36 l. 29, for are r. or. p. 47 l. 4, for or r. with. p. 48, r. first l. thus, the ninth (which is in effect the second.) the seventh and. p. 54 l. 38, for Intalian, r. Italian. p. 64 l. 6, for proceeding r. preceeding. p. 75 l. 15, dele and. page 77 line 43, for transverso r. traversa. p. 78 1. 42, for Fardinal's. r. Farinel's. p. 88 lines 31 and 32, for grande r. grand. p. 99 l. ult, for wrote r. rote. p. 109 l. 12, after which r. is. p. 117 l. 32, for modee r. modes. p. 120 l. 22, for a r. as. p. 121 l 10, for Leggiardo r. Leggiadro. p. 130 l. 31, after Agnus r. which make one mass. p. 132 l. 15, dele the first f. p. 139 l. 34, for wholes r. holes. p. 141 l. 41, after of r. the. p. 142 l. 23, for faid r. furd. p. 161 l. 2, for divisions r. mutations. p. 182 l. 12, for gioppi, r. groppi. p 193 l. 10, for superfluous, r. a temi-diapente p. 199 l, 21, for responsay r. responsary. p. 204 l. 35, for rivogliomento r. rovol-gimento. p. 212 l. 11, dele first comma. p. 218 l. 18, for 75 r. 17. p. 251 l. 1, for and r. a. p. 273 l 31, for tercet r. tierce. p. 275 penult dele be. p. 291 1. 8, for tillo r. trillo. p. 292 1. 38, for at r. the. p. 304 1. ult dele a. p. 309 l. 27, dele . p. 322, 1. 30. for Fardinal's r. Farinel's. p 325 l. 6, for Trochæus r. Jambus. p. 330 1. 26, for vistamente or visto r. vitement or vite. ibid 31, for vivacessimo r. vivacissimo. ibid l. 37, after which r. is,

There may have escaped some literal Errors which cannot stop the Reader.



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